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A Study of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) and its Antecedents in an Indian
Police Agency

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ABSTRACT

Concerns have been raised that discretion available to police officers leads to its abuse. This work focuses on those officers who use discretion to enhance achievement of organizational objectives, even though these acts may not be role prescribed. In this first study of OCB among police officers in India, we determine the antecedents of these voluntary, pro-social behaviors (also called organizational citizenship behavior, or OCB) which help achieve legitimate work objectives and promote effective functioning of the organization.

Positive psychology is an emerging discipline which focuses on what is good about human psychology in an effort to make life meaningful for a majority of people. The linkage of positive psychology with organizational behavior in police is used to drive home the point that there is much to be gained by focusing on positive workplace factors, though reducing the stressors is also important. We compare OCB research findings from US based studies in business organizations and also some studies from the criminal justice system, especially the police and corrections.

The present study utilizes a survey of 829 police officers from two districts (Rohtak and Sonapat) conducted in 2013 in the state of Haryana in the Republic of India. The findings indicate that organizational justice, job satisfaction, task variables, and organizational commitment are strongly related to OCB. These findings relating to Indian police officers are similar to the findings related to Western officers. This suggests that these antecedents may be universally important predictors of OCB among police officers across cross-national contexts. However, some of the findings were unexpected. For instance, task routinization had a significant and positive relationship with OCB. The significance of these findings is discussed.

Theory is developed to explain why measurement of OCB in police agencies should not necessarily be the same as the measurement of OCB in business organizations. An analysis of police roles is presented which indicates that various roles are played by the police in different situations. Therefore there may not be one omnibus OCB suitable for all police roles, but specific forms of OCB should be considered for different roles.

The study found that the dimensions of OCB examined in this study have different antecedents, though affective commitment was a common antecedent across all OCB dimensions. This study supports the conclusion of LePine et al. (2002) who cautioned against simply combining the dimensions of OCB to create a composite OCB index, and argues that theories should be developed at the individual OCB dimension level and not at the aggregate OCB level.

In an emerging economy like India, roles of police are rapidly expanding and there are many areas where ground rules are not yet set in place. In such a situation, it is important for police officers to take the initiative to go beyond their prescribed duties and take actions that can meet challenges successfully. Organizational citizenship behaviors by police officers can help achieve these tremendous challenges. The implications of increased OCB in police are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The nature of police work provides for the exercise of significant amounts of discretion. Officers can choose to follow one of several courses of action available. Being street level bureaucrats, they have much discretion and only limited supervision (Lipsky, 1980). Concerns have been raised that discretion leads to its abuse. The American Bar Foundation studies of the criminal justice system sought to bring the 'law in practice' into greater harmony with the 'law on the books' (Walker, 1992). In his book, *Policing a Free Society*, Goldstein (1977) makes a case for structuring discretion as far as possible to reduce the potential for misuse.

However, only a small percentage of officers actually abuse discretion and conduct unethical acts. According to Trautman (1997), about 3,104 officers, of the over 600,000 sworn police officers in the states and local departments were disciplined for unethical behavior from 1990 to 1995 in the United States. In this effort to contain the abuse of discretion, the majority of police officers who use discretion to make good decisions to create a friendly work environment and provide better service delivery and law enforcement have been somewhat forgotten. In this sense, discretion is a tool which can be misused, but can also be used to achieve organizational goals effectively.

This work focuses on those officers who use discretion to enhance achievement of organizational objectives, even though these acts may not be role prescribed. Specifically, these voluntary, pro-social behaviors help achieve legitimate work objectives and promote the effective functioning of the organization. For instance, helping a co-worker, or being creative in improving interactions with citizens would be examples of pro-social and voluntary behaviors. Such behaviors have been studied for a substantial period of time across

several organizations (Barnard, 1938; Katz, 1964). Dennis Organ and his colleagues first used the term ‘organizational citizenship behavior’ (OCB) to refer to the behaviors that might improve organizational effectiveness, even though they may not be a part of the job description (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Since then, studies of OCB have proliferated in various kinds of organizations. However, the concept of OCB has received only limited attention in criminal justice agencies, and even less in regards to the police. It is important to study OCB as it enhances organizational effectiveness and success (Organ, 1988). This could be due to increased productivity of employees, better coordination within and between workgroups, or better adaptability to environmental challenges.

There has been a revolution of sorts in psychology starting in the 1990’s. Instead of studying what ails people, many psychologists have focused on what makes people happy and fulfilled. One of the pioneers of this field, Martin Seligman, describes this field of ‘positive psychology’ as seeking to achieve a scientific understanding and develop effective interventions to build thriving individuals, families, and communities (Seligman, Steen, Park, and Peterson, 2005). Seligman carried forward the work of humanist thinkers like Carl Rogers, Erich Fromm, and Abraham Maslow, who focused on happiness and positive aspects of human nature, instead of the treatment of mental illnesses. Positive psychology thus indicates a shift from treating abnormal behavior and mental illness to focusing on happiness and positive aspects of human nature.

The present study seeks to achieve a similar objective by focusing on employees who create a positive work atmosphere and make the job worthwhile for themselves and others. It seeks to determine what motivates officers to engage in citizenship behaviors. The reasons for indulging in OCB are often different from the reasons explaining in-role behaviors (Organ et al., 1983). In other words, the motivation to engage in OCB is very different from that of usual work behaviors. Thus, it is important to examine the antecedents of OCB. The central

question, which the present study seeks to answer, is why some officers indulge in OCB, while others do not. In other words, what are the factors that influence OCB?

WHAT IS OCB

Citizenship behavior is essentially pro-social behavior that is discretionary and not role prescribed. Such behavior is typically not directly or explicitly recognized by the reward system, and taken together promotes effective functioning of the organization. OCB is also known as extra-role behavior that is performance beyond the stated job requirement (Van Dyne, Cummings and Mclean-Parks, 1995).

Smith et al. (1983) proposed that there are two major dimensions of OCB. These are Altruism and Compliance. Altruism indicates helping behavior towards co-workers or others that helps achieve organizational objectives without being asked to do so. Examples of this could be helping fellow workers become more productive, or volunteering to do tasks without being asked when at work. The second dimension, Compliance, refers to those behaviors that ensure all concerned follow organizational rules. It denotes acceptance of the organizational rules by an employee because she internalizes them. Examples of this OCB would include showing up and leaving on time, completing all necessary paperwork, ensuring that all assigned tasks are done appropriately and in time.

There is considerable debate over what exactly are the specific behaviors which may be referred to as OCB, within the two OCB constructs of Altruism and Compliance as identified by Smith et al. (1983). For instance, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Payne, and Bachrach (2000) identified 30 behaviors in their review of relevant literature and divided them into seven categories. These are (1) Helping Behavior, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational Loyalty, (4) Organizational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self Development.

Most existing research on OCB has been conducted in professional business organizations, particularly manufacturing concerns. Criminal justice agencies are very different from these types of organizations. It is possible that a different type of OCB will be found in criminal justice agencies as compared to manufacturing organizations due to differences in outcomes/products produced by manufacturing and service organizations. The functions of delivering security and safety services to the citizens should be taken into account when considering the nature of OCB in law enforcement agencies. Therefore, OCB pertaining to service related organizations may be more appropriate for police agencies. Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter (2001) proposed that loyalty, employee participation and service delivery behaviors are more relevant for service related organizations. As the police provide security and law and order services to citizens, it could be argued that OCBs of service related organizations might be more relevant for police agencies.

These three categories of OCBs (loyalty, employee participation and service delivery) also correspond to the three OCB dimensions of Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994). First, loyalty denotes the importance of providing good service as also to act as advocates of the company to outsiders. Second, the employees who are in contact with customers act as a strategic link between the outside environment and the company. This provides them with a unique opportunity to provide feedback and suggest improvements in internal operations of the company (Schneider & Bowen, 1984). Thus, the behaviors associated with taking initiative, especially in communicating the needs of customers to the decision making centers of the company assume added significance in case of service companies. Third, behaviors relating to service delivery, such as being courteous, reliable, and responsive are important for service organizations. Taking care of these behaviors is likely to lead to enhanced quality of service delivery, which is more important for service organizations. Thus, employees who

behave in a conscientious manner in activities around service delivery will be performing OCB that carry greater relevance for service organizations.

In one of the few studies of OCB in police agencies, the three measures of loyalty, employee participation and service delivery have been used (Chen and Kao, 2011). The present study utilizes this characterization as well as the generic scale developed by Smith et al. (1983). Thus, another task, which this study seeks to achieve, is to examine the applicability of specific forms of OCB for police agencies (e.g. by Bettencourt et al., 2001), or whether it makes more sense to use the generic forms of OCB (e.g. by Smith et al., 1983).

WHY IS OCB IMPORTANT

There are several reasons why OCB may be considered important. First, OCB are important because they lubricate the social machinery of the organization (Smith et al., 1983). They provide a flexibility, which goes beyond the job description and provides direction to work behavior that may arise from time to time as per the requirements of the job or the surrounding environment. Not only are OCB unenforceable by the regulations of the organization, as they are not a part of the job description, they are difficult to measure as an employee's OCB may result in performance enhancement of another employee or even the whole company. Thus, even though they are not a part of the measures of job performance, OCB are important for the long-term success of the organization

Second, Organ (1988) argued that if considered over several employees and over a long time, OCB enhances organizational effectiveness. There are several reasons why OCB might enhance organizational effectiveness. For instance, OCB may enhance coworker and manager productivity, free up resources so they can be used for more productive purposes, conserve resources used on purely maintenance functions, help in coordinating action across work groups, may attract best employees to the organization, increase stability of the

organization's performance, and enable the organization to adapt effectively to environmental changes.

Third, Organ et al. (1983) claim that theoretically, OCB are important because they cannot be explained by the same reasons which explain the in-role behaviors. In other words, the motivation to indulge in OCB is very different from that of usual work behaviors. Thus, it is important to investigate the antecedents of OCB.

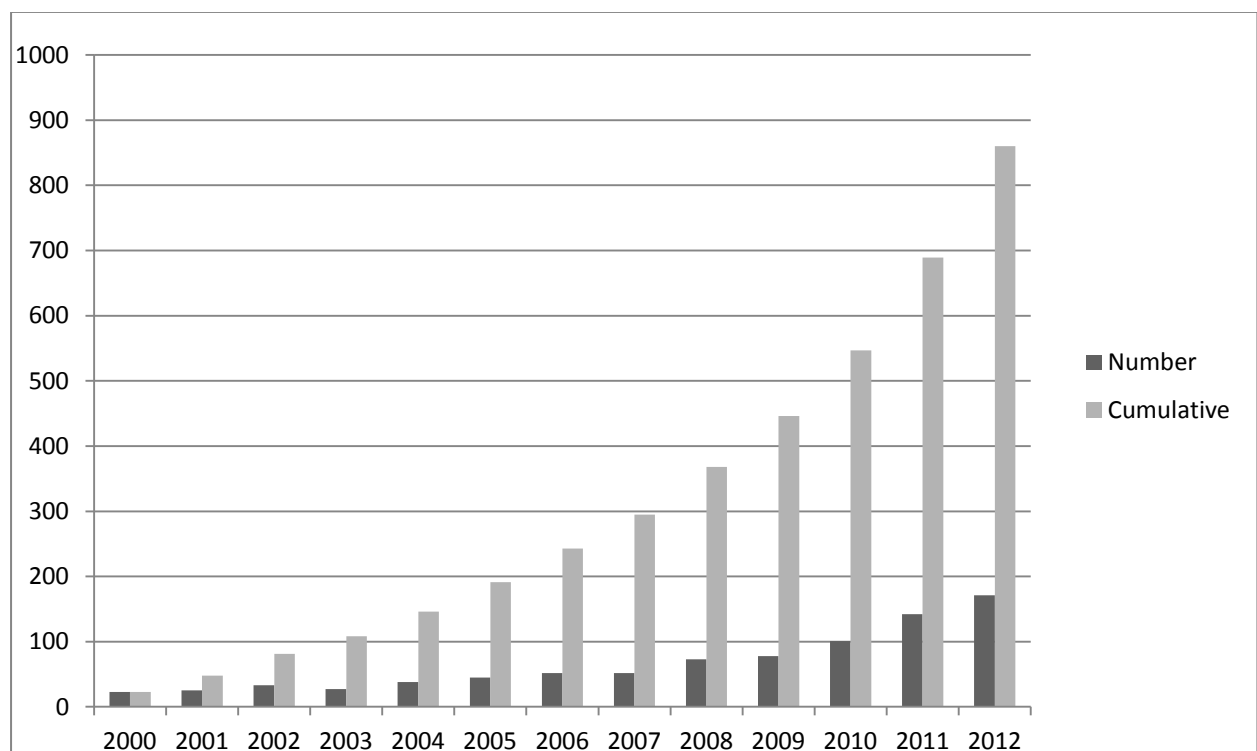
GROWTH IN OCB STUDIES

There has been a steady growth in research interest in the area of OCB. OCB research has primarily involved private sector businesses and has involved traditional fields of management like human resource management (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Murphy and Shiarella, 1997), and marketing (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Kelley and Hoffman, 1997; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter, 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine, 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, MacKee, and McMurrian, 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). The literature has expanded to include non-traditional areas of hospital and health administration (Bolon, 1997; Organ, 1990b), community psychology (Burroughs and Eby, 1998), industrial and labor law (Cappelli and Rogovsky, 1998), and strategic management (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993, 1998). Other areas include military psychology (Deluga, 1995), economics (Tomer, 1998), and leadership (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996a, 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990). There has also been interest in cross-cultural studies as evidenced by the work studying the nature and relationships of OCB in different nations, especially China, Taiwan, Australia, and Japan (Chen, Hui, and Sego, 1998; Farh, Earley, and Lin, 1997; Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Hui, Law, and Chen, 1999; Kim and Mauborgne, 1996).

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) have listed the number of publications in the area of OCB and related constructs from the period 1983 to 1999 and the growth in this area since then has been relatively rapid. While 135 articles were published in the period from 1983 to 1999 (a 16 year period), about 860 articles have been published in the twelve years since their study. This represents a more than six fold increase. It is amazing that the number of articles published cumulatively at the time of review by Podsakoff et al. (2000) was 135, while the number of articles published in 2012 alone was 171.

Figure 1 displays the number of journal articles published in the area of OCB. The database search was performed using the University of Cincinnati Libraries search tool 'Summon' using the phrase 'citizenship behaviors' in the title field of the article.

Table 1.1: Number of journal articles on OCB and related constructs



However, not much research has been conducted using samples drawn from criminal justice agencies. A few studies have been done involving prison officers in the US. For

instance, Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2008) examined the influence of work environment variables (i.e., organizational commitment, job stress, and job involvement) and individual-level characteristics on OCB. Similarly, the effect of job satisfaction, turnover intent, burnout, role ambiguity, position, commitment, and demographic variables on OCB has been examined (Lambert, 2010; Lambert, Hogan, Kelly, Altheimer, Barton, and Shannon, 2012; Lambert and Hogan, 2013). However, no study has examined the construct of OCB and its antecedents in police agencies.

ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

Early research into the antecedents of OCBs focused on the employee characteristics that influence OCBs. Subsequently, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors were studied for their effect on OCB. In this dissertation, I shall focus on the three major categories of antecedents: 1) individual characteristics, 2) task characteristics, and 3) organizational characteristics. Let us briefly consider each of these categories of antecedents.

1) Individual characteristics

Organ and Ryan (1995) proposed that among individual characteristics morale, role perceptions, and demographic factors may be related to OCB. Morale is thought to consist of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. The relationship between these factors and OCB has been generally found to be significant and positive. Role perceptions have also been found to be significantly related to OCBs. For instance, role ambiguity and role conflict are negatively related to OCBs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a).

Demographic factors have typically not been found to be related to OCB. However, Davis (1983) reported that helping behavior and courtesy are more likely in females. It may be expected that females exhibit higher frequency of OCB, while other research has failed to

find a significant difference between males and females. In fact, Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) argue that conscientious behavior is more likely to be found in males as it suggests an exchange orientation frequently associated with a male preference for equity over equality.

2) Task characteristics

The three forms of task characteristics included in the literature are task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks. A number of studies (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a, 1996b) have found that all three forms of task characteristics are related to OCBs. The three forms, namely, task feedback (positively related), task routinization (negatively related), and intrinsically satisfying tasks (positively related) are important antecedents of OCBs, though, not much attention has been given to task variables in the OCB literature.

3) Organizational characteristics

The major forms of organizational characteristics tested in the literature are distributive justice and procedural justice. While procedural justice has been found to be a significant predictor of OCB, distributive justice has inconsistent effects on OCB (Lambert and Hogan, 2013). Thus employees seem to be more concerned with whether proper and fair procedure has been followed in reaching conclusions rather than the validity of the conclusions themselves.

These three categories of antecedents will be examined in detail in chapter 2, where a more thorough review of literature is presented. Factors associated with leadership have also been found to be significantly associated with OCB. For instance, trust in leader and behaviors associated with the path goal theory of leadership and leader member exchange (LMX) are positively associated with OCB.

OCB IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES

A handful of studies have been conducted regarding OCB in criminal justice agencies. A study to determine the antecedents of OCBs found among staff in a high security correctional facility (Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin, 2008) found that job stress and organizational commitment had statistically significant effects on OCBs. While job stress had a negative effect on OCBs, organizational commitment had a positive effect on OCBs. Neither job involvement, nor personal characteristics were found to have a significant impact on OCB. The study found that organizational commitment was almost two times as potent in predicting the variation in OCB as was job stress. Committed employees were found to engage in more OCB.

Chen and Kao (2011) conducted a study of Taiwanese police recruits to investigate how motivational work characteristics and social work characteristics influence service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. They used the three dimensions of service related OCBs (loyalty, service delivery, and participation) as proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001) and Van Dyne et al. (1994). They found that both motivational work characteristics and social work characteristics have a positive effect on OCBs. These two predictors of OCB used in the study by Chen and Kao have never been used in previous research. Therefore, even though the study is rigorous and presents new knowledge, it does not add to the theory development of OCBs for police agencies.

THE PRESENT STUDY

The above analysis shows that there is a gap in the literature regarding the antecedents of OCB. Specifically, antecedents related to demographic characteristics, attitudinal variables, task level variables, and organizational level factors have not been considered in a single study of a criminal justice agency ever before. In addition, the studies of OCB in police agencies have not examined whether the predictors found to influence OCB in business

organizations influence OCB in police agencies or not. Therefore, the first research question this study seeks to answer is the relative importance of the antecedents used in previous literature on OCB in business organizations in predicting OCB in a police agency. This will be achieved by incorporating all of these antecedents in this single study.

Secondly, it is possible that the nature of police organizations requires a separate scale to measure OCB. Thus, the second research question the present study seeks to determine is whether OCB in police agencies are consistent with those found in other business organizations. In other words, should OCB be measured by the same generic scale in police agencies, as in other business organizations? For this purpose, the study utilizes the standard measurement of OCB proposed by Smith et al. (1983) as well as the OCB specifically for service organizations proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001).

The third research question is related to theory development. Podsakoff et al. (2000) stress the need for additional theory development that identifies the potentially unique antecedents of different forms of citizenship behaviors. This is important because if various forms of OCB have similar antecedents then it does not really matter how OCB is operationalized. On the other hand, if different forms of OCB have unique antecedents, then we would need theories at the individual citizenship behavior construct level. Therefore, the third research question the study seeks to answer is whether different dimensions of OCB have unique antecedents or not. The four dimensions of OCB examined in this study are Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery and Loyalty. The significant antecedents of each dimension shall be explored.

The present study is important because it has the potential to identify links to productive and more effective work of employees. It hopes to uncover factors that motivate police officers to engage in enhanced work performance. The end result is that you get both more satisfied personnel/workers and more effective organizations.

The role and functions of police agencies include crime prevention, law enforcement, order maintenance, handling problem situations and increasingly responding to the needs of the community in the growing era of community policing. It is the belief of the author that this study can identify what drives police officers to go beyond their job description and be the ‘good Samaritan’. This will have implications that can guide policy to allow for increased OCB, which can lead to better fulfillment of these roles by the street level bureaucrat – the police officer.

The data for the present study were collected from the northern Indian state of Haryana. Haryana is adjacent to the national capital of New Delhi, and is considered to be a relatively well-developed state. The Haryana Police is a force of about 56,747 officers, headed by a Director General of Police, and is divided into 21 districts. A self-administered survey instrument was distributed to 1000 police officers in Sonapat and Rohtak districts of Haryana state. A total of 829 officers completed the survey, giving a usable response rate of 82.9%. The respondents represented all areas of the district police except upper management, and included officers in both executive and administrative functions.

A version of the survey has been used previously with correctional agencies in the US (Lambert, 2010; Lambert and Hogan, 2013). This survey was adapted for use with police employees at the study site. The survey instrument has been designed to gather information on a range of factors including measures of officer attitudes, organizational commitment, organizational justice, job stress, job satisfaction, work family conflict, and organizational citizenship behavior among others.

SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the concept of OCB and generally described how it has been conceptualized in prior research. The issue related to its measurement and applicability to both business organizations as well as police agencies was also discussed. These issues will

be addressed in detail in the second chapter. In addition, the study's three primary research questions were stated, namely,

1. To determine the significant antecedents of OCB found in police agencies and whether they differ from the antecedents of OCB found in manufacturing organizations.
2. Whether OCB in police agencies should be measured by the same scale as in business organizations.
3. Whether different forms of OCB have different antecedents or are the antecedents similar for all OCB examined.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will introduce the reader to the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature and the limited literature on OCB research in criminal justice agencies, specifically the police. Towards this end, first, the nature of discretion in police work will be analyzed. Discretion has been studied extensively in the police. This body of research will be utilized to underscore the nexus between discretion and OCB. Secondly, the emerging field of positive psychology will be explored to discover a new approach to the study of the positive or beneficial use of discretion. Positive psychology provides a novel way to look at what is good about human nature, instead of focusing solely on how to correct negative aspects of human nature. Third, the concept of OCB will be introduced. This section will explore the development of the concept of OCB and the growth in OCB studies, especially cross cultural studies. This section also includes a description of the nature of the OCB construct, its antecedents, and its importance for criminal justice agencies, especially the police. Fourth, the chapter explores police roles and whether the nature of police work mandates use of different measures of OCB peculiar to police research compared to the measures used when studying for profit companies and other organizations. Finally, the hypotheses proposed to be tested in the study are summarized.

DISCRETION

In his book “Professional discretion in welfare services”, Evans (2010) refers to discretion as the extent of freedom a worker can exercise in a specific context. The definition by Davis (1969:4) is similar when he notes that “a public officer has discretion

whenever the effective limits on his power leave him free to make a choice among possible courses of action or inaction”. Discretion has also been referred to as the power of free decision or latitude of choice within certain legal bounds. Thus workers have a choice to decide between various courses of action which they may take in a particular situation. This may be because there are no specific rules or norms applicable to that situation or because it is a grey area which necessitates decision making on the part of the worker.

Michael Lipsky (1980) focused specifically on the front line staff in policy delivery agencies to whom he referred to as street level bureaucrats. These employees typically interact directly with citizens and have substantial discretion at their command. Some of the examples of street level bureaucrats could be judges, teachers, and police officers. Police officers typically face so many different types of situations that there are no specific rules for each such situation. In addition, sometimes they have limited information or have very little time to reach a decision. In other words, an officer is free to make a decision according to his own judgment. The nature of police work is such that opportunities are often created for the use of discretion. Officers frequently work alone, without direct supervision, and have to make quick decisions. Further, the nature of criminal law, due to the vagueness of some substantive laws and restrictions on officer behavior due to the procedural law, makes it impossible to fully enforce all laws equally (Goldstein 1988; Walker and Katz, 2008). There is also difference in the amount of emphasis put on enforcement of laws in different jurisdictions. For instance, some communities may enforce public intoxication vigorously, while others may not. Police officers being street-level bureaucrats therefore have wide ranging discretion, most of the time (Maynard–Moody, Musheno and Palumbo, 1990).

At times, discretion is misused by police officers and this may lead to unethical or corrupt practices, and may also lead to violation of human rights. Concerns have been raised that the mere existence of discretion leads to its abuse. The American Bar Foundation (ABF)

sponsored a series of studies spanning the criminal justice system in the late 1950's. These studies aimed at bringing the 'law in practice' into greater harmony with the 'law on the books' (Walker, 1992). Many of these studies discovered incompetence and corruption in the criminal justice system (Remington, 1990). One of the alleged causes of this phenomenon was explained as a result of improper exercise of discretion inherent in the enterprise. Thus, the ABF studies partly legitimized the practice prevalent in the police departments even if some officers deviated from the law on the books. Going a step further, the study findings hinted that the practices which deviated from the law on the books were many times legitimate and involved a more effective way to deal with situations (Bernard and Engel, 2001). However, such deviations were not systematically studied and were thus poorly understood. Instead, what was more likely to be the subject of research studies was the abuse of discretion and not the positive aspects of discretion. Obviously, uncontrolled police discretion can (and has) become a serious problem in our society (Walker and Katz, 2008).

There is no doubt that the study of the misuse of police discretion is important. These studies have led to important changes in the way police departments function. However, at the same time it must be realized that only a small percentage of officers indulge in such undesirable behavior. We do not have frequencies for occurrences involving the misuse of discretion, but when one considers formal actions involving misused discretion; only a small proportion of officers seem to be involved in these proceedings. A perusal of studies across both the US and India indicate that less than 1 % of police officers may fall into this category. For instance, only 3,104 out of 600,000 (0.52 %) officers were disciplined for unethical behavior according to a US study (Trautman, 1997). Similarly, in India, about 9,665 out of 1,223,319 (0.79 %) officers were the subject of complaints lodged against them for improper police behavior (Crime in India, 2010).

Thus, it is clear that the vast majority of police officers do not abuse discretion. However, only a limited amount of theoretical and empirical attention has been paid to this silent majority. Most police officers indulge in voluntary pro-social behaviors and use discretion in ways that help achieve positive outcomes for the police agency (Bernard and Engel, 2001). This is the same idea as OCB, which involves the decision by officers to act in ways that benefit the organization and are not formally required or mandated by their job duties.

POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

A parallel can be drawn from the history of psychology with the state of affairs in police agencies. During the years following World War II, there was a need for psychologists who could treat mental illnesses. Then, in 1947, The National Institute of Mental Health was founded, which paved the way for grants for research projects involving various kinds of mental illnesses and their treatment (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Thus psychology studied weaknesses and damage, much like the treatment of a disease. This focus yielded rich dividends, such as the treatment or prevention of at least 14 disorders, which were previously thought to be intractable (Seligman, 1994).

However, there was a lack of research on what is good in an individual that drives him or her to be satisfied and living a deeper and fulfilled life. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi realized the need for this positive psychology as early as World War II in Europe. He noted that even though some people were lost in despair after the destruction, there were others who nurtured hope and acted as a beacon for others in troubled times. He wondered what inspired them to hold on to their strengths. The emphasis on the individual as an active participant in his or her life continued with the work of Albert Bandura on self-efficacy (Bandura, 1996). Bandura (1996) did not view individuals as passive entities merely responding to stimuli, but

as active decision makers who exercise choices. In his social cognitive theory of self-regulation, Bandura emphasized the importance of self-influence (Bandura, 2001). He also recognized that social factors affect the operation of the self-regulatory system.

In a special issue of the *American Psychologist* in 2000, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) promote a science of positive subjective experience, which promises to improve quality of life and prevent the pathologies of a meaningless life. They lament the exclusive focus of psychology on pathology that has resulted in a model of human beings lacking positive features. There are a number of positive features such as hope, wisdom, creativity, and responsibility among others which are either ignored or explained as modifications of authentic negative impulses (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). They remind us that psychology is not just the study of pathology, weakness and damage.

This trend initiated largely by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi has evolved into a flourishing study of positive psychology. There are three themes that run through the newly emerging discipline of positive psychology. The first theme is based on and relates to positive experience. ‘Positive experience’ is an essential component of positive psychology (Kahneman, 1999). This approach focuses on what makes one moment better than the next. According to Kahneman (1999), the hedonic quality of the experiences in the present is the basis of positive psychology. Several other examples of positive experience have been highlighted by scholars. For instance, Peterson (2000) focuses on optimism as a tool associated with good mood, perseverance, achievement, and physical health. While optimism can be a highly beneficial psychological characteristic, the cost of optimistic beliefs that prove to be wrong also has to be taken into account. Similarly, Diener (2000) has talked about subjective well-being, while Myers (2000) considers happiness as an essential component of positive experience.

The second theme emphasized in this literature is positive personality. This theme views humans with positive personality as self-organizing, self-directed, adaptive entities (Seligman, 2000). For instance, in a group of American adolescents, it was found that a high proportion of them were bored, unmotivated, and unexcited about their lives. Self-reports of 16,000 moments in the daily experience of this group indicated that 27% of these moments were those of boredom (Larson and Richards, 1991). According to Larson (2000), such high rates of boredom are not indicative of psychopathology, but rather signs that there is a lack of positive development. He sees these results not as responses to family stress or emotional disturbance, but as the absence of a positive life trajectory. Therefore, Larson (2000) focuses on exceptional performance which includes creativity and talent.

Similarly, Ryan and Deci (2000) focus on self-determination and how it facilitates intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. They believe it is the socio cultural context which facilitates or impedes the natural processes of self-motivation and healthy psychological development. When the psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are satisfied, it results in better mental and physical health.

The third theme is the relationship of the individual and her social environment or context. For instance, Larson (2000) emphasizes the importance of voluntary activities, while Myers (2000) describes the contributions of social relationships to happiness. Happy people have been found to be more helpful to those in need; this is also called the “feel-good, do-good” phenomenon (Myers, 2000). Helping others is a part of Altruism, which is a dimension of OCB measured in the present study.

The above examples from both psychology and policing indicate that research attention first focused on the disease model. As far as psychology is concerned, efforts were made to determine what is wrong with the psychological condition of a person in an attempt

to set it right. There were notable achievements in the process. For instance, psychologists were able to find prevention and cures for a number of disease conditions. Similarly, studies conducted on police agencies sought to locate the source of abuse of discretion. Police studies resulted in a more complete understanding of the exercise of discretion and ways to improve the working of police agencies. For instance, Goldstein (1977) argued that the use of discretion should be structured as much as possible to provide guidelines to officers and reduce the likelihood it would be misused.

As noted, the primary issue analyzed in the police discretion research so far has been how to reduce or prevent the abuse of discretion. The officer can abuse discretion or choose to act in a way that leads to better performance and fuller fulfillment of the police role, as well as improve officer satisfaction with her job. Unfortunately, only a limited amount of research emphasis has been directed at the positive aspects of discretion as far as police agencies are concerned, and only a handful of studies have examined such positive effects. For instance, Gottfredson and Gottfredson (1988) have examined discretion in the criminal justice system and how it can be used to improve system decision making. In their coverage of areas as diverse as arrest, charging, sentencing, corrections and parole, they make a case for increasing rationality in decision making. While they acknowledge that discretionary decision making involves potentially conflicting aims of retribution, rehabilitation and the like, there is scope for improving these decisions. While not directly mentioning the positive use of discretion, they emphasize that the proper use of discretion is critical to an effective and humane criminal justice system, which is required for the control and reduction of crime.

Nalla and Madan (2012) explored the extent of polite behavior in a police agency. Specifically, they examined the perceptions of citizens regarding the relationships between the police officers and the community in a New Delhi neighborhood in India. They found that about 32% of the respondents perceived police officers as acting politely. This reflects the

choice of officers to act in a polite manner, or at least a manner perceived by citizens as being polite, during interactions with citizens. However, studies of such behavior among police officers have been few, and most have not been theoretically grounded.

The present study is a step in the direction of enhancing our understanding about the positive use of discretion by police officers during the performance of their job duties. Specifically, this study examines determines the antecedents of pro-social, contextual, or voluntary behaviors of police officers often in situations, when no one is observing them and they are not required to undertake these positive actions. Unlike prior research on improper police behavior (i.e., use of force, arrest, stops and searches, etc.) the present study focuses on the factors that contribute to behaviors that are beneficial to the well-being of the organization and employees. This study is intended to pave the way to unlock the reasons why police officers exhibit pro-social behaviors.

OCB DEFINITIONS

Employee behaviors that are not required as part of the job description, but are engaged in to achieve organizationally relevant objectives have been studied for a long time. A number of definitions have been proposed by various scholars. A few prominent ones are mentioned in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Definitions of OCB

Barnard (1938)	<i>Willingness</i> of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system
Katz (1964)	Innovative and Spontaneous behaviors
Bateman and Organ (1983)	Discretionary behavior, not explicitly rewarded by the formal reward system, and which promotes effective organizational functioning
Graham (1991)	All positive community relevant behaviors

Chester Barnard (1938) conceived of these behaviors as “*willingness* of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system” (p. 83). Katz (1964) identified them as innovative and spontaneous behaviors. He also noted that this conduct is not part of the required job duties, but is nevertheless desirable for the organization as a whole, for instance, individual initiative, or voluntarily taking extra responsibility. In contrast, dependable role performance refers to the faithful performance of job related duties, for instance, scrupulous adherence to rules and regulations of the organization, like arriving in the office on time, not wasting time, and respect for rules.

Dennis Organ and his colleagues (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983) coined the term ‘Organizational Citizenship Behavior’, or OCB to refer to these behaviors. Organ (1988) defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). This definition contains three parts. The first part says that the behavior is discretionary, and is not required as part of the job. The second part affirms that the formal reward system does not recognize the behavior, though this does not mean that OCB is never rewarded in organizations. In fact, the rewards

are not guaranteed and the relationship between OCB and rewards is indirect (Organ, 1997). The third part of the definition explains that OCBs are associated with effective functioning of an organization. Thus, OCB may not directly benefit someone, but it may support co-workers and the organization (Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983).

Some early researchers, such as Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith et al. (1983), defined OCB as distinct from in-role job performance, but relevant to organizational functioning. However, Graham (1991) argued that this had the unintended consequence of finding an often times changing distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviors, as it varied across persons, jobs and organizations. Therefore, Graham (1991) proposed a definition, which included all positive community-relevant behaviors. This broader conceptualization included in-role behaviors, organizationally relevant extra-role behaviors as well as political functions such as organizational participation.

Since Katz first spoke about innovative and supportive behaviors, and Organ and colleagues introduced the term OCB, other researchers have used a variety of names to describe the same set of employee behavioral choices. For instance, Marinova, Moon, and Van Dyne (2010), have thought of OCB as workplace extra role behavior, as did Van Dyne, Cummings, and Parks (1995). In addition, these behaviors have been called, pro-social organizational behavior (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George and Bettenhausen, 1990), organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992; George and Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Borman, White, and Dorsey, 1995). Thus, behaviors similar to those identified by Barnard (1938) and Katz (1964) have been identified over the years, even though they are called by different names.

DIMENSIONS OF OCB

The OCB literature has not only used various terms to label specific behaviors as OCB, but has also used various taxonomies. There is a lack of consensus about the dimensionality of the OCB construct. A number of scholars have identified several dimensions of OCB, out of which some prominent ones have been summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Dimensions of OCB

1	2	3	4	5
Katz (1964)	Smith, Organ, Near (1983)	Graham (1991)	Williams and Anderson (1991)	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000)
Cooperating with others	Altruism	In-role behaviors	OCB directed towards individuals (OCB-I)	Helping behavior
Protecting the organization.	Generalized Compliance	Organizationally relevant extra-role behaviors	OCB directed towards the organization (OCB-O)	Organizational Compliance
Volunteering constructive ideas		Organizational participation		Organizational loyalty
Self- training				Sportsmanship
Maintaining a favorable attitude toward the company				Individual initiative
				Civic virtue
				Self-development

Katz (1964) initially identified five dimensions of “innovative and spontaneous behavior”. These five behaviors were (1) cooperating with others, (2) protecting the organization, (3) volunteering constructive ideas, (4) self-training, and (5) maintaining a favorable attitude toward the company.

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) found two major dimensions of OCB, namely, altruism, and generalized compliance. Altruism captures behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations (e.g., orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload) (p. 657). Generalized compliance is a form of conscientiousness which does not help any one person, but is helpful for the organization as a whole. It is the internalization of norms defining what a good employee ought to do.

Van Dyne et al. (1995) noted that much of the empirical research on organizational citizenship behavior, and the related concepts of pro-social organizational behavior and organizational spontaneity, has focused more on what Schwab (1980) called substantive validity, rather than on construct validity. That is, the literature has focused more on understanding the relationships between organizational citizenship and its antecedents and consequences, rather than carefully defining the nature of citizenship behavior itself. Following Schwab (1980), Van Dyne et al. (1995) warned that unless additional attention is directed toward more comprehensive theoretical explications of the constructs and their measures, we are in danger of developing a stream of literature that may prove of little value to the field in the long run. The literature thus formed would be no more than just a collection of studies without a consistent theoretical framework.

Under Graham’s (1991) definition, OCB was conceptualized as consisting of three substantive categories – obedience, loyalty, and participation. In organizational settings, organizational obedience would mean respect for rules governing work descriptions and other policies, while organizational loyalty connotes identification with the organization and its

leaders, which is above and beyond one's own interests. Organizational participation includes an interest in managing the affairs of the organization, and participating in optional governance activities.

It seems that many, if not most, of these dimensions are overlapping with each other. In view of this fact, there have been attempts to classify these behaviors into subgroups (Coleman and Borman, 2000; Motowidlo, 2000; Organ, 1997). A parsimonious two-category classification was thus suggested by Williams and Anderson (1991) of classifying all OCB behaviors into OCB directed towards individuals (OCBI) and OCB directed towards the organization (OCBO). Thus, altruism and courtesy would be examples of OCBI, and sportsmanship and civic virtue would be examples of OCBO. It may be noted, however, that self-improvement efforts may not find themselves in either category.

A closer look at the literature also reveals that Smith, Organ, and Near's (1983) classification (altruism and generalized compliance) is perhaps the most widely used in the OCB research. This may be due to the fact that it is parsimonious and the scales operationalizing altruism and compliance capture the behaviors that are the essence of these concepts. These two dimensions will also be used in the present study.

More recently, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000) in their meta-analysis of OCB research identified about 30 different behaviors, which have been referred to as OCB in the literature. They organized these behaviors into seven themes or dimensions. These are (1) Helping behavior, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational loyalty, (4) Organizational compliance, (5) Individual initiative, (6) Civic virtue, and (7) Self-development. In their study they also note the similarity between their seven dimensions and Katz's (1964) original five dimensions of "innovative and spontaneous behavior". Thus, even though the labels applied to the citizenship behaviors may be different, the same

behaviors captured by both Katz (1964) and Smith et al. (1983) are reflected in the seven dimensions more recently described by Podsakoff et al. (2000).

Helping behaviors have been identified by most authors in the field to be an important form of OCB. These include helping others voluntarily, or preventing work related problems. The former part includes Smith, Organ, and Near's (1983) idea of altruism which captures behavior that directly and intentionally helps a specific person in face to face interaction (like helping someone with a heavy load). The latter part is similar to the idea of courtesy which are foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem (like providing advance notice to those who need it (Organ, 1988, 1990b). Several other names have been used by scholars to refer to this idea. For instance, peacemaking, cheerleading, and interpersonal helping are some of the labels used to describe helping behavior (Organ, 1990; Graham, 1991). Factor analysis by indicates that altruism and courtesy load on a single factor (LePine et al., 2002).

Sportsmanship has been defined as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining" (Organ, 1990b, p.96). This is related to the idea of playing the game in the spirit of the game, and not being inconvenienced by losing a game. Thus, those employees who maintain a cheerful outlook even when things do not go their way, or their suggestions are not listened to, exhibit sportsmanship. This behavior has not received much attention in the literature, even though its antecedents and consequences have been shown to be somewhat different from the other components of OCB (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Walz and Niehoff, 1996).

Organizational loyalty consists of a number of elements such as spreading goodwill (George and Brief, 1992) and endorsing and supporting organizational objectives (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). It involves promoting the organization to outsiders. Some early studies found this to be distinct from other forms of OCB. For instance, Moorman and

Blakely (1995) found that this dimension is distinct from many other forms of OCB. However, later, a confirmatory factor analysis failed to confirm this (Moorman, Blakely, and Niehoff, 1998). There appears to be a need of further research on the scales used to measure this dimension.

Organizational compliance indicates an employee's acceptance of the company's rules and regulations because she internalizes them. This component has been called generalized compliance by Smith et al. (1983), organizational obedience by Graham (1991), 'OCB-O' by Williams and Anderson (1991), and 'following organizational rules and procedures' by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). This component inherently represents internal acceptance of the organization's rules, regulations and procedures by the employee. The deep respect of rules by the employee leads to compliance and obedience to them even when no one is observing her. At one level it may appear that each employee would ordinarily obey the rules and regulations of her organization. However, the reality is that at many times this does not happen. Therefore, an employee who scrupulously obeys all rules and regulations on his own is often regarded as a good citizen. Organizational compliance has been portrayed as a component of OCB for a considerable period of time.

Individual initiative has been considered another form of citizenship behavior. This includes acts that are far beyond the ordinarily expected roles of an employee. It may include creative and innovative acts, which improve the performance of one or many employees. In addition, individual initiative might have implications for the whole organization. This indicates going above and beyond the call of duty and is similar to Organ's conscientiousness construct (Organ, 1988).

Civic virtue has been derived from Graham's discussion of the responsibilities of employees as citizens of the company (Graham, 1991). This represents commitment towards the organization as a whole. Employees high on civic virtue may participate in management

activities such as policy debates, attend meetings which discuss organizational strategy, or monitor the environment for threats to and opportunities for the organization. Organ's (1988) 'civic virtue' has also been called 'organizational participation' by Graham (1989) and 'protecting the organization' by George and Brief (1992).

Self-development refers to efforts by employees to better themselves by increasing their knowledge or skills. Employees may seek training courses; keep abreast of relevant news with a view to increase their contribution to the organization (George and Brief, 1992: 155). However, self-development has not received much empirical confirmation in the literature.

According to Lambert and Hogan (2013) there are three essential elements of OCB. The first is that it is not role prescribed (Kohan and Mazmanian, 2003). This means that a particular OCB may not be included in the formal job description. This is more a personal choice of the employee and a matter of inner calling. The second element is that it does not benefit the person doing the OCB, though it may benefit fellow workers or the organization as a whole (Smith et al., 1983). The third element is that there are no rewards associated with OCB as it is usually outside the normal purview of the job (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Thus, OCB is discretionary behavior not required by the organization and it is typically not recognized by the formal reward system.

However, there is a debate over whether OCB is never rewarded at all, or is really rewarded indirectly and under certain conditions. For instance, Conway (1999) has argued that overall ratings of performance measure an individual's value to an organization. This suggests that the weight managers give to OCB when evaluating performance corresponds to the actual impact of OCB on unit performance. However, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found only partial support for this position. They evaluated the relative effects of OCB on evaluations with their relative effects on organizational effectiveness. They found managers

to overvalue helping behavior and undervalue civic virtue, relative to their actual effect on organizational effectiveness. One reason why managers differentially value some forms of OCB over others could be that managers do this out of ignorance as they do not realize the impact of OCB on unit performance. It could also be true that certain OCB are given more weight in evaluations as they have greater impact on managers' performance. However, this conclusion is only drawn from a single study, and it would be unwise to generalize it unless more studies are available.

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) raised the issue of construct validity in their meta-analysis of OCB. Construct validity has been defined by Schwab (1980) as "the correspondence between a construct (conceptual definition of a variable) and the operational procedure to measure or manipulate that construct". This means that construct validity refers to both the definition and the measurement or dimensionality issues. If OCB is a latent construct, it is like a trait, or personality construct that causes behaviors reflected in various dimensions. The causal arrow in this case would be from OCB to dimensions. Organ (1997) seems to favor this approach when he suggests that satisfaction may drive employees towards exhibiting OCB. However, most scholars have not taken this approach (LePine et al., 2002). If OCB were more like an aggregate construct, then it would consist of various dimensions, which can be added, or combined in any other mathematical way (LePine et al., 2002). In this case, the causal arrow would point from the dimensions to the OCB construct. Many scholars have combined measures obtained on the scores of behavioral dimensions into a composite OCB score (Allen and Rush, 1998; Chen, Hui, and Sego, 1998; Deckop, Mangel, and Cirka, 1999; Hui, Law, and Chen, 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian, 1997).

Several scholars have suggested that OCB consists of many different behaviors as described above. However, LePine et al. (2002) assert that though these dimensions can be

distinguished from one another, the relationship between popular predictors (job satisfaction, commitment, leader support, and fairness) and each dimension of OCB is similar to the relationship between the predictors and overall OCB. In other words, the relationship between the predictors and OCB does not depend on how OCB is behaviorally defined.

LePine et al. (2002) have also examined the view that it is important to distinguish between OCBI (altruism and courtesy) and OCBO (sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness). Here OCBI refer to behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals, for instance, helping others or taking a keen interest in other employees. OCBO refers to behaviors that benefit the organization as a whole, for instance, an employee may give advance notice when unable to come to work, or adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order (Williams and Anderson, 1991). According to the analysis by LePine et al. (2002), the relationship of any predictor variable with OCBI was not significantly different than the relationship with OCBO. Thus, no difference between the relationships of predictor variables was found across dimensions of OCB. This indicates that much significance may not be attached to different dimensions of OCB, as various OCB dimensions show similar relationships with predictors.

OCB RESEARCH IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES

In general there have been two types of writings on OCB and service agencies. The first involves theorizing about OCB in public service organizations, such as the police and correctional agencies, while the second involves empirical studies of OCB. Most of the existing research defines OCB without reference or concern for the type of organization in the study. However, it may be argued that OCB may be conceptualized differently in different types of organizations. For instance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) make the claim that some types of OCB may be more appropriate for certain types of organizations than others. Criminal justice agencies, especially police agencies are very different in nature than

most business organizations. For instance, there is no manufactured product if we think of a parallel with manufacturing organizations. However, police agencies do provide safety and security services to the citizens who are their clients, though unlike the for-profit service delivery organizations, the police seek no financial benefits.

The police officer on the street, whether he is a patrol officer or engaged in other police roles acts as a representative of the police department, and more generally of the government, to outsiders. Such employees can enhance or diminish the image of the organization (Bowen and Schneider, 1985; Schneider and Bowen, 1993). Thus, it is important for these employees to engage in loyalty OCB. In other words, they should not only promote the services of the organization, but also they should promote the image of the organization. This behavior has been termed ‘loyalty boosterism’ by Moorman and Blakely (1995) and has been defined by them as the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders.

Organizational loyalty has also been considered as a category of OCB by Graham (1991). While tracing the history of ‘citizenship’ from political philosophy and related disciplines, she considers organizational loyalty as identification with organizational leaders and allegiance to the organization as a whole. This allegiance is not to any particular individual, group, or department; rather it is to the global interests of the organization. Some instances of this behavior could be defending the organization against threats, enhancing reputation of the organization and serving organizational interests. Bettencourt et al., (2001) assert that loyalty OCB may be more relevant for customer contact organizations, where employees need to contact customers frequently.

Thus, applicability of the same kinds of OCB across a variety of organizations may not be an accurate representation of reality. Specifically, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argue that some types of OCB may be more relevant for specific types of organizations. As noted, there is a small but growing body of research which explores OCB in criminal justice

agencies. Chen and Kao (2011) conducted a study of Taiwanese police recruits to analyze the relationship between work values and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. They used the three dimensions of service related OCB (loyalty, service delivery, and participation) as proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001) and Van Dyne et al. (1994).

Lambert, Hogan, Dial, Altheimer and Bellessa (2012) studied the effect of role stressors on OCB in a correctional facility in the Midwest region of the United States. To measure OCB they used an eight item index that included altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. Among the antecedents comprising personal characteristic variables, position had a significantly negative association with OCB. All other personality characteristics of age, gender, tenure, education, race and supervisory status did not have a significant relationship with OCB. Among the role stressors, they found role ambiguity had a significant and negative association with OCB, while perceived dangerousness of the job had a positive association. Role conflict and role overload were found to have non-significant effect on OCB. Thus, correctional staff officers want clearly defined roles and directions, without which OCB are not likely to be displayed. The finding of a positive association of perceived dangerousness of the job with OCB was an unexpected finding. It went against the theorizing by Lambert et al. (2013) that it would be difficult to go beyond the call of duty when the employee is not sure about his personal safety. One explanation proposed in the study is that this is a statistical construct with no substantive meaning, while the other explanation is that a small amount of danger in the job actually adds a little spice and perhaps honor to the job. These jobs are not perceived to be overly dangerous, or so dangerous that they can result in death. Similar findings were reported in an earlier study (Lambert, 2005a).

Kohan and Mazmanian (2003) studied the relationship between daily work experiences (operational and organizational) and the nature of their associations with burnout and OCB. They measured obedience, loyalty, and participation dimensions of OCB. In their

study of 593 police officers from the Ontario Provincial Police and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, they found that OCB were more strongly associated with organizational experiences than operational ones. It is noteworthy that other studies (e.g., Aquino, 1995; Folger and Martin, 1986; Moorman, 1991) have also found stronger associations of OCB with organizational as compared to operational experiences.

A study to determine the antecedents of OCB with a sample of staff in a high security correctional facility was conducted by Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2008). They measured altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. The study found job stress and organizational commitment had a statistically significant effect on OCB. While job stress had a negative effect on OCB, organizational commitment had a positive effect on OCB. Neither job involvement, nor personal characteristics were found to have any significant impact on OCB. Most job stress experienced by employees in correctional institutions has been attributed to work stressors like role conflict, role overload and lack of participation in decision making (Armstrong and Griffin, 2004; Cullen et al., 1985; Lambert, Hogan, Paoline, and Clarke, 2005; Slate and Vogel, 1997). If employees see the organization as the root cause for their ills it is unlikely that they will engage in OCB. However, the study found that organizational commitment was almost two times as potent in predicting the variation in OCB as was job stress. Committed employees were found to engage in more OCB.

POLICE ROLES AND OCB

Let us try to understand the roles police are expected to play. At best the roles are hazy and poorly understood (Bittner, 1970). For instance, Bittner (1970) argues that the image the police have is of being a crime fighting machine. However, in reality most officers are more likely service providers and handle minor disorder problems. A similar finding has been reported by Bayley (1994) when he notes that most causes of crime are due to social and

economic factors such as poverty, unemployment, single family households and the like, over which the police have no control. Therefore the most important roles of policing are handling disorder situations, providing services and maintaining order (Wilson, 1968).

The situations which police face every day are unpredictable and police officers do not have clear instructions in each case. They are left to do their best according to their own judgment. They have significant amounts of discretion but with little guidance as to how to use that discretion. Most interaction with citizens is in an environment where there is very little direct supervision and a large amount of discretion. That is why police officers have been referred to as street level bureaucrats (Lipsky, 1980). The performance of officers is thus contingent on making good use of their discretion. The significance of OCB like service delivery becomes very important in this context as the decision to use discretion in a positive way can lead to better service delivery.

Some scholars feel that the role of the police is still primarily crime prevention. For instance, through strategies such as problem oriented policing or hot spots policing, crime can actually be reduced by the police. Even in these cases, the police have to actively partner with the community. Thus, the citizens are the primary clients of the police and in this sense the police are a service organization providing, crime reduction, order maintenance and security services to the community.

In view of the above mentioned literature of the dimensions of OCB and the nature of police work, four dimensions of OCB have been found suitable for measurement in this study. There are organizational Loyalty, Service Delivery, Altruism, and Compliance. The reason for this choice is explained below, while the measurement issues are discussed in Chapter 3.

Given the customer service role of the police, the OCB relevant for the police would include OCB identified in prior research for service organizations. Police officers can be seen

as boundary spanners of the police agency. This means that the officers are the primary and sometimes perhaps the only means of contact of the organization with the citizens. The behavior of these police officers is perceived by citizens as a reflection of the entire department. These officers can enhance or diminish the image of their police agency (Bowen and Schneider, 1985). Therefore, the officers must engage in Loyalty OCB if they are to achieve organizational objectives (Bettencourt, Meuter, and Gwinner, 2001). Thus, one of the dimensions examined in the current study is Organizational Loyalty.

Secondly, the police officer in contact with citizens acts as a strategic link between the external environment comprising the citizens and the general public and the internal environment of the police agency. The officer can provide valuable information about the needs or requirements of citizens and can suggest improvements in service delivery. Thus Service Delivery, which may include taking individual initiative through the positive use of discretion, is fundamental to meet the changing needs of the organization's clients, namely the citizens (Bettencourt, Meuter, and Gwinner, 2001). Thus, the second dimension of OCB considered in this study is Service Delivery.

The third major form of OCB examined in this study is Compliance (Marinova et al., 2010; Smith et al., 1983; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Compliance generally indicates observing regulations of the organization, not wasting organizational resources and includes not taking excessive breaks, not taking unauthorized breaks, and using organizational supplies properly (Smith et al., 1983; Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie, 1997). Compliance and using time efficiently are to be considered as OCB (Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, 1995). Behavior that is purposefully harmful to the legitimate interests of the organization, such as cutting corners, taking longer than allowed breaks, not taking interest in work when unobserved, and purposely using organizational resources in a wasteful

manner would be behaviors opposite to Compliance (Dalal, 2005). Thus, the third dimension of OCB considered in this study is Generalized Compliance (Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983).

The fourth dimension of OCB considered in the present study is Altruism. This captures behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in a face to face situation, for instance, “orienting new people, or assisting someone with a heavy workload” (Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983, p. 657). Altruism refers to a situation where employees volunteer to do work or help coworkers without being asked (Donavan, Brown, and Mowen, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The opposite of such helping behavior would be selfish or self-centered behavior. This may include not helping coworkers, not doing work unless specifically ordered to do so, and generally looking out solely for one’s self (Lambert, 2010).

Altruism and Compliance are two dimensions of OCB identified by Smith et al., (1983), and have been used in a large number of studies. Therefore, these two dimensions were used to determine whether the same dimensions would be applicable to studies of employees of police agencies. If the OCB construct using these two dimensions is found valid and the relationship of OCB with predictor variables examined is found to be similar to the relationships found in case of other types of organizations, that would indicate that the OCB construct and the relationships are consistent across organizations. In other words, the nature of OCB is the same for police agencies as it is for other organizations.

The OCB dimensions of Loyalty and Service Delivery have been taken from Bettencourt et al., (2001). They claim that these dimensions are more meaningful for service-delivery organizations. It has been argued above that police agencies are more akin to service organizations and therefore these two dimensions may be more meaningful for police agencies instead of the other two dimensions of Altruism and Compliance. Analyses using all

of these OCB dimensions as independent variables will be carried out to determine the best suited OCB dimension(s) for police agencies.

CROSS CULTURAL STUDIES OF OCB

Most studies of OCB have been based on samples drawn from Western countries. The present study utilizes a sample drawn from a police agency in India. The three dominant perspectives suggesting different taxonomies of OCB are all anchored in Western cultures, particularly North America. The first of these is the one by Katz (1964), the second by Smith et al. (1983) while the third one is based on Greek philosophy and developed by Graham (1991) and Van Dyne et al. (1994). However, George and Jones (1997) have talked about the cultural context of OCB. Organ and Ryan (1995) have studied OCB across industry, technology, and job function. Very little work has been done to study OCB in cross cultural contexts. It is possible that OCB may vary across widely different geographic locations. However, why should OCB be expected to vary across nations or cultures?

Hofstede (1984) has emphasized that in order to test the universality of laws it is more meaningful to test them in Sweden, Japan, and Zambia than in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. Thus testing of OCB across cultures will be more meaningful if a comparison of results is made between United States and India, rather than between United States and Canada, as there are significant cultural differences between US and India versus the US and Canada. In other words the generalizability of a study is improved if a comparison is made between two very different cultures as compared to two similar cultures. Moreover, police culture was earlier considered as a byproduct of certain definitive and unchanging aspects of police work (Prenzler, 1997). These aspects include ambiguity of the street environment, authority to use violence, discretion, vague and conflicting mandate among others. According to this line of thought, police culture is viewed as an adaptation to hostile working conditions,

and conceived as a set of beliefs and behaviors shared by all officers, and therefore largely a constant (Skolnick, 1994).

However, due to police reforms and other reasons, such an immutable culture is considered untenable and not a reflection of the true reality by other scholars (Scripture, 1997). This has led to a more sociological understanding of police culture with differences between officers being taken into account. This indicates the existence of cultural variability. For instance, Paoline (2004) has focused on different officer types and formation of subcultures within larger occupational culture. Extending this line of thought, one might expect variability across organizations and geographic locations. It is possible that OCB may need to be operationalized differently in India, and may also have different relationships with its antecedents as compared to the relationships obtained from studies based in western nations. Thus, there is value in testing the construct validity and the relationships of OCB with its antecedents and consequences in India.

One reason why OCB may differ across nations is their relationship to organizational effectiveness (Farh, Zhong, and Organ, 2004). Daft (1992) proposed that there may be two ways to measure 'organizational effectiveness'. One is the external, or system resource approach, while the other is the internal systems approach. In countries like China and India, which are high on collectivism (Hofstede, 1984), the external resource dimension is claimed to be more important than the internal approach (Farh et al. 2004). The reason for this is that the US economy has a well-developed system of legal and regulatory processes that guide interactions between a firm and its environment. On the other hand, in China, the absence of ground rules comparable to those of the US leave a firm vulnerable to all kinds of external influences by local bureaucrats and politicians. Thus, a firm's employees need to develop external support with external stakeholders to successfully survive and grow in this kind of environment.

Another reason for potentially different OCB across nations or cultures, especially between China and the US could be the emphasis on individualism in the US. A certain amount of conflict is tolerated and even celebrated in U.S. based organizations as long as it is productive and leads to appreciation of another's viewpoint. However, in a collectivist culture like China, organizational employees relate more to a group based on family, place of origin, rather than the organization. Even small disagreements between these groups can lead to large-scale conflicts between the groups. Thus, behaviors, which challenge the status quo, may not be viewed as OCB in China as they may have a possibility of raising tension between two groups. Actions that can head off tensions may be more likely to be viewed as OCB as they help preserve harmony (Farh et al., 2004).

Thus, OCB can have different meanings in different societies. Farh, Zhong, and Organ (2004) conducted a major study of OCB in which they collected 726 OCB incidents common in the workplace of 72 state-owned, collective and private, foreign invested and local enterprises in China. Their objective in doing this was to determine whether the behaviors, which are called OCB, would be the same in two countries with substantially different economic and cultural traditions. The study revealed 10 dimensions of OCB, which the authors divided into five resembling the western description of OCB, and five which were unique to China. The five dimensions similar to the western descriptions were taking initiative, helping coworkers, voice, group activity participation, and promoting company image. The present study would assess Altruism which is similar to taking initiative and helping co-workers. Loyalty is another dimension measured in the present study which is similar to the idea of promoting company image.

The other five dimensions are somewhat different from those found in western studies. These are self-training, social welfare participation, protecting and saving company resources, keeping the workplace clean and interpersonal harmony. Among these five, self-

protection, protecting and saving company resources, and keeping the workplace clean have been measured and tested in only a limited number of studies conducted in the western nations. Interpersonal harmony has not been included as an OCB in the west but has been considered in some Asian samples, especially in Taiwan (Farh, 1997). Specifically, Farh (1997) found that the items used to measure OCB had substantial and significant loadings on the factor they called interpersonal harmony.

Farh et al. (2004) did not find several of the major dimensions of OCB significant in their Chinese sample that are usually determined to be important in western samples; namely, sportsmanship, courtesy and advocacy participation. This could be because Lam et al. (1999) found that employees from China and Japan were likely to consider courtesy and sportsmanship as in-role behaviors. In other words, these behaviors are expected of an employee as part of the job and therefore may not be considered OCB, which by definition involve extra role behaviors.

In a study involving a Chinese company, Chan and Snape (2012) found that employees saw the organization and the union as distinct sources of commitment and OCB. The study also revealed that the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior were positively related to perceived organizational support, while the antecedents of union citizenship behaviors were largely perceived union support. Chinese society has been classified as a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2001) and Chan and Snape (2012) suggest that high level of union citizenship behaviors are exhibited by those employees who do not easily submit to authority.

Muralidharan, Venkatram, and Krishnaveni (2013) have analyzed the antecedents of OCB in self-help groups (SHGs) in Coimbatore city in India. Self-help groups are an informal association of individuals who come together to pool economic resources and start a microenterprise. The SHGs have been quite successful in promoting micro and mini business

enterprises in India, especially in the underdeveloped rural and poor areas. There were about 7.7 million SHGs operating in India in 2009 and the financial assistance/ loans to them by banks and financial institutions amounted to approximately \$11 billion. The authors took a sample of 60 members of SHGs promoted by the government and 60 members from SHGs promoted by NGOs (non-government organizations – referred to as voluntary agencies in the US). The five dimensions of OCB - Altruism, individual initiative, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy were compared across the two groups as well as their respective performance. The results revealed a positive relationship between antecedents, OCB and performance of both categories of SHGs. A significant difference was also found in OCB exhibited by the two categories of SHGs. Specifically, the government SHGs were found to exhibit OCB more frequently as compared to the SHGs promoted by the NGOs.

Studies by Lam, Hui and Law (1999) compared perspectives of 431 pairs of subordinates and supervisors from US, Australia, Japan and Hong Kong. They sought to study the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviors. They found rank differences in defining job roles to be stronger than the nation differences in this regard. They also differentiated between quality and quantity of OCB. A high quantity of OCB may not be beneficial if it takes away subordinates from their core work. This is especially true for newer employees who may still be learning the basic work techniques. The study also revealed that participants from collectivist cultures like Hong Kong and Japan were more likely to perceive the sportsmanship and courtesy dimensions of OCB to be more a part of their jobs as compared to the participants from Australia or the US.

An analysis of these studies reveals that though the OCB construct has been studied, not much theoretical consolidation has taken place. This could be due to the fact that many studies emphasize various forms of OCB, such as workplace cleanliness and interpersonal harmony, which have not been analyzed in earlier projects. Similarly, the antecedents tested

are many times those which have not been identified in earlier research, for instance, perceived organizational support. If the validity of the OCB construct has to be tested in police agencies and that too in a cross cultural context, then the dimensions of OCB already identified in various meta-analyses should be tested in cross cultural settings to see if they have application across contexts (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996; LePine et al., 2002; Organ and Ryan, 1995). This study, therefore, utilizes those dimensions of OCB and those antecedents of OCB which have been found to have construct validity in the existing OCB literature. .

ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

Research into the antecedents of OCB has focused on individual or employee characteristics, task characteristics, and organizational characteristics (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Each of these categories will be now examined in this section.

Individual level

The individual characteristics considered are demographic variables (age, education, race/ caste, and gender), role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job stress.

(i) Demographic variables

Existing studies do not find demographic variables to be significant predictors of OCB. More specifically, age, race, and educational level have not been found to significantly affect OCB (Lambert et al., 2008). Caste is a social stratification system unique to India as is similar to race, as used in the western literature. However, without delving deep into the nature of India's caste system, suffice it to say that though the two concepts of race and caste are similar, there are important differences between them. Searle Chatterjee (1993) has argued that the allegiance to a group membership in a particular caste may sometimes take

priority over other cultural identities in India. The effect of caste membership on OCB has never been examined. This study will be the first to study its effect on OCB of police officers. In view of the existing research, the first hypothesis is that the demographic variables (age, caste, educational level, and organizational tenure) will not be significantly related to OCB in the present study.

As far as gender is concerned, arguments have been offered suggesting that it may have an effect on OCB. For instance, Davis (1983) reported that helping behavior and courtesy (both are forms of OCB) are more likely to be found in females. As such, it may be expected that females exhibit higher frequency of OCB. At the same time, Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) argue that conscientious behavior is more likely to be found in males as it suggests an exchange orientation frequently associated with a male preference for equity over equality. However, other research has failed to find a significant difference between males and females as far as the frequency of exhibiting OCB is concerned. For instance, Organ and Ryan (1995) did not find a significant effect of gender and organizational tenure on OCB in their meta-analysis. Overall, the results seem to be mixed. Therefore, gender is not expected to significantly influence OCB in the present study.

(ii) Role stressors

Role stressors are negative stimuli that are role characteristics of a job (Hepburn and Knepper, 1993). Role stressors lead to frustration and emotional strain for officers. The major forms of role stressors examined in this study are role conflict and role ambiguity. When behaviors, duties and directions for a job are inconsistent with one another, role conflict arises (Poole and Regoli, 1983). For instance, when two superior officers give conflicting orders to the same officer, role conflict may occur. One superior officer may direct a police officer to attend to an emergent law and order issue, while the other may ask him to work on an investigation case. This situation arises many times in India as the same police officer who

is an investigation officer is also expected to act as a beat officer and is responsible for law and order issues in his beat area.

When it is not clear how exactly to perform job duties or what is expected from a person, role ambiguity is likely to result (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980). If an employee perceives his role to be ambiguous, he is likely uncertain of his roles, duties and tasks (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980). If the job of an employee has not been clearly defined, this may lead to role ambiguity (Berkman and Neider, 1987). In a study of 1539 employees drawn from different industries and job levels, both role ambiguity and role conflict were found to be negatively related to OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996a). It is therefore hypothesized that role conflict and role ambiguity will be negatively related to OCB in the present study.

(iii) Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is generally defined as having the core elements of loyalty to and identification with the organization (i.e., pride in the organization and internalization of its goals) and a desire to belong (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). This represents a bond not only to the job or the work group but a bond to the organization as a whole. Organizational commitment has been equated to the strength of involvement in and identification with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) have proposed a three component model of organizational commitment. The first is affective commitment which reflects a desire to stay in the organization. The second component is continuance commitment which reflects the need to stay with the organization. The third component is the perceived obligation to maintain employment with the organization and may be called normative commitment.

Affective commitment is the emotional attachment to an organization. The employee enjoys the relationship with the organization and is likely to stay employed with it. She stays

because she wants to stay. It is an emotion based component. For instance, if some of the best friends of an employee work in the organization or she likes the atmosphere and feels relaxed, then the employee would have a high affective commitment. The network bonds with coworkers are significant in this component of commitment. Thus affective commitment is emotion based.

If an employee stays with an organization because she needs to due to some reason, then that component will be continuance commitment. For instance, if a promotion is due soon, the employee may likely want to stay as it is not known whether she will be promoted as quickly in a new organization. An employee may also continue employment just to complete the number of years needed to get a pension. In such situations the employee does not continue employment because of the love for the job or the organization, but rather to avoid the costs of leaving the organization. Thus continuance commitment is cost based.

Regarding organizational commitment, a large number of studies have found that organizational commitment leads to OCB (Bragger et al., 2005; Dalal, 2005; LePine, Erez, and Johnson, 2002; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Organ and Ryan, 1995). Chen and Kao (2011) conducted a study of Taiwanese police recruits to analyze the relationship between work values and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors. They used the three dimensions of service related OCB (Loyalty, Service Delivery, and participation) as proposed by Bettencourt et al. (2001) and Van Dyne et al. (1994). They found that work values have a positive effect on psychological contract and professional commitment. The results also revealed that psychological contract and professional commitment had a positive effect on service related OCB. Thus work values have an indirect effect on OCB.

In a study of correctional officers in Kentucky, Culliver, Sigler and McNeely (1991) concluded that organizational commitment was correlated with pro-social work efforts among correctional officers: Specifically, they wrote that "it is probable that these correctional

officers are motivated in their work behavior by what they perceive to be best for the organization” (p. 283).

It is likely that an employee high in affective commitment will exhibit higher frequencies of OCBs as the emotion based attachment with the organization may motivate her to work for the benefit of the organization. Several studies have found that affective commitment is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors. For instance, Carmeli and Colakoglu (2005) found a high correlation between affective commitment and OCB. In another study Allen, Evans, and White (2011) found that organizations need to focus on increasing the levels of affective commitment if they want to improve the performance of citizenship behaviors by their employees. Therefore it is hypothesized that higher affective commitment will lead to increased OCBs.

In a meta-analysis by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) continuance commitment was unrelated to or negatively related to dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors. In the present study, it is hypothesized that continuance commitment will be negatively related to OCB as the employee continues work just because she wants to avoid the costs of leaving the organization and not because of any intrinsic attachment to the organization.

(iv) Job satisfaction

The fulfillment or gratification derived from work is generally referred to as job satisfaction (Hopkins, 1983). It is thus a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction has two components. One is a rational component where an employee makes an assessment of his job, while the second is an emotional component where the employee feels a certain way about his job. Employees are satisfied when their job provides the things that they value. Here, “value” refers to things that people consciously or subconsciously want to seek or attain. In their study of 461

students of evening MBA classes who were otherwise full time employees Williams and Anderson, (1991) found that job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to OCB. Similarly, in their study of 160 officers at a Midwestern correctional facility, Lambert (2010) also found job satisfaction to be positively related to OCB. When a police officer feels happy, he may be expected to be altruistic, which is a dimension of OCB examined in this study.

Job satisfaction has generally been associated with positive consequences for police officers (Baker and Dolu, 2010). For instance, in the United States, job satisfaction has been linked to task engagement and endorsement of innovative police styles (Pelfrey, 2004). Among South Korean officers, job satisfaction has been found to be correlated with higher levels of support for civilian oversight (Lee and Moon, 2011). Canadian officers who reported higher levels of job satisfaction were found to have higher levels self-esteem (Kohan and O'Connor, 2002). However, job satisfaction has not been linked so far to OCB with Indian police officers.

Job satisfaction may be conceptualized as facet or global. Facet based job satisfaction is generally concerned with particular areas of the job, such as pay, hours, tasks, coworkers (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969). The other more widely used approach is the global approach, which emphasizes the overall satisfaction with the job (Cranny, Stone and Smith, 1992). Here employees are asked about their job in general without referring to any specific aspect of the job. A global approach involves a broader assessment of job satisfaction as compared to the facet based approach (Camp, 1994). The global approach to job satisfaction will be used in the present study as the respondents are free to think about any issue relating to satisfaction, rather than restricting them to think only about a specific feature of their job (Camp, 1994). It is therefore hypothesized that job satisfaction will be positively related to OCB.

(v) Job stress

Stress is a normal condition faced by people. Stress releases certain hormones that speed up the heart rate and provide a burst of energy. Stress can be useful in situations which are tough or complicated. However, too much stress for an extended period of time is detrimental to optimal performance. Constant stress can make chronic pain worse and can also lead to long-term health problems such as heart disease, high blood pressure, back problems, and depression (Lazarus, 2000). Workplace stress also leads to decreased work productivity (MacDonald, 2003). There is a rising incidence of stress within the workplace (Collins and Gibbs, 2003). Even though every person is subject to stress, police officers experience higher amounts of stress as compared to other people (McCafferty, Domingo, and McCafferty, 1990). Working in a police agency is considered as one of the most stressful occupations (Baker and Wiecko, 2007). This could be due to exposure to confrontation and violence and the risk of involvement in a variety of traumatic incidents (Collins and Gibbs, 2003).

The effect of job stress on OCB has not been studied often in the criminal justice literature. In one study, Kohan and Mazmanian (2003) examined the impact of work hassles and work uplifts on burnout and OCB among Canadian police officers. They referred to negative organizational experiences as hassles, while positive organizational experiences were called work uplifts. The study revealed that job stress was negatively related to OCB among police officers. In a study of 160 correctional officers in a Midwestern correctional facility, Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin (2008) found that job stress was negatively related to OCB. No studies of the influence of job stress on OCB in criminal justice agencies in India were discovered. In the light of findings from existing studies it is hypothesized that job stress will be significantly and negatively related to OCB.

Task level

The substitutes for leadership theory was initially proposed by Kerr and Jermier (1978). According to them, certain situational variables can substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of leader's behavior. These variables can therefore influence the leader's ability to influence the behavior of subordinates. One set of these variables can be the characteristics of the task performed by subordinates. The three forms of task characteristics included in the literature are task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000). Task feedback is a response of a manager (or a task owner) to the performance of a task and associated results. This response is explained and communicated to employees to help them understand whether the task they have executed was of adequate quality or was lacking in some way. In the case of deficient performance this may prompt remedial action the next time the same task is attempted.

Task routinization involves the repetitiveness of a task. This could cause boredom or fatigue. For instance, random patrolling is a function executed by police officers. Patrolling without specific instructions or without varying how it is performed could lead to a high amount of task routinization. Presence of specific instructions regarding the activities to be undertaken while patrolling may reduce the dullness or boredom in random patrolling. Intrinsically satisfying tasks for police officers may be such activities as helping citizens in need, especially the old, infirm, or those who need special care.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) and Scott (1966) suggested that task variables are key predictors of employee satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1980) also suggested that among the most important things that can be done to enhance employee satisfaction is to design tasks that provide ample feedback, are intrinsically interesting, and are not overly routine. Despite the intuitive appeal of the substitutes for leadership model, studies have not revealed much

support for this model. For instance, weak support has been found for the theory by Farh, Podsakoff, & Cheng, (1987) and Howell & Dorfman, (1981). However, a number of studies (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996a, 1996b) have found that all three forms of task characteristics, namely, task feedback (positively related), task routinization (negatively related), and intrinsically satisfying tasks (positively related) are important antecedents of OCB. For instance, in their meta-analysis, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) found that task characteristics were more strongly related to employee satisfaction than the other criterion variables. Overall, task characteristics uniquely accounted for 13% of the variance in employee satisfaction. It may therefore be hypothesized that low levels of task routinization; high levels of task feedback and high levels of intrinsically satisfying tasks will lead to higher OCB among police officers.

Organizational level

The organizational level factor considered in the present study is organizational justice. Justice perceptions are an important area of research in organizational behavior because they are responsible for many individual and organizational outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Organizational justice refers to the fair treatment of employees by the organization (Greenberg, 1987a). Organization justice can be considered to have two salient dimensions of distributive justice and procedural justice (Reynolds and Roman, 2005). The equity theory proposed by Adams (1963) generated the idea of distributive justice. The first proposition of the theory posits that organizational outcomes must be fair when considering the efforts put in by employees. In other words, the outcomes or rewards must be proportional to the efforts made. The outcomes may include performance evaluations, pay, punishment, job assignment, or shift assignments (Wolfe and Piquero, 2011). The second proposition is that these outcomes must be consistent with what similarly placed employees would receive in similar situations (Warner, Reynolds and Roman, 2005). Equality refers to

the idea that everyone gets the same rewards. However, equity refers to the idea that more rewards are given to those who contribute more. The equity exchange principle is the basis for distributive justice (Lambert, 2003). This means that outcomes must be proportional to inputs or efforts of employees. Outcome should also be consistent with what other employees receive in similar situations (Clay-Warner et al., 2005). The second dimension of organizational justice, namely, procedural justice, refers to whether the process of arrival at organizational outcomes is fair and transparent (Wolfe and Piquero, 2011). Procedural justice may be more important in predicting outcomes than distributive justice many times (Lind and Tyler, 1988). This is because people want the process which is used to arrive at a reward making decision to be fair, consistent, and transparent (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Procedural justice refers to the fairness of procedures adopted to reach at a decision which affects employees. If the procedures are fair, this may enhance voluntary cooperation (Tyler and Degoe, 1995). Research has increasingly focused not on the quality of decisions but on the fairness of the decision making process (Tyler and Lind, 1992). Evaluations of decision making have found to influence people's decision to voluntarily accept the decision of authorities (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice also lowers the fear of being victimized at work.

Workplace factors are one reason why employees exhibit OCB (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Dalal (2005) argued that according to the social exchange theory, social interactions at work influence the behavior of employees. The theory also contends that how people are treated influences the feelings of unspoken obligations towards those who treated them in a particular way (Blau, 1964). If the organization treats them fairly, the employees will be more likely to react in a positive way. These feelings can motivate an employee to go above and beyond what is normally expected at work. On the other hand, if an organization treats its employees unfairly, they may withdraw and become less productive. Thus,

organizational justice has been linked with higher work performance and OCB (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Organ, 1990).

Among studies of the criminal justice system, a study of 200 officers in a private prison in the US showed that procedural justice was significantly related to OCB, though distributive justice was not (Taxman and Gordon, 2009). In another study of 220 staff members at a private prison in the U.S., Lambert and Hogan (2013) found that procedural justice was significantly related to OCB, while distributive justice was not significantly related. Both distributive and procedural aspects of organizational justice will be examined in the present study. In view of these findings, it is hypothesized that procedural justice will be significantly related to OCB while distributive justice will not be significantly related to OCB in the present study.

HYPOTHESES

The three sets of hypotheses tested in the present study in order to address the three research questions will be described now. The first research question seeks to find the significant antecedents of OCB. The hypotheses for this question are summarized as below:

1. Demographic variables (age, caste, educational level, gender and organizational tenure) are not expected to significantly affect OCB (Hypothesis 1).
2. Affective commitment will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 2).
3. Continuance commitment will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 3).
4. Job satisfaction will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 4).
5. Job stress will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 5).
6. Role conflict will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 6).
7. Role ambiguity will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 7).

8. Task feedback will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 8).
9. Task routinization will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 9).
10. Intrinsically satisfying task will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 10).
11. Procedural justice will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 11).
12. Distributive justice will be positively associated with OCB (Hypothesis 12).

The second research question seeks to know whether OCB in police agencies should be measured by the same scale as in business organizations. The hypothesis framed for this is as follows.

13. The scale constructed from using all four dimensions of OCB will better capture the OCB construct as compared to any one or any combination of various OCB dimensions (Hypothesis 13).
14. The variation explained by antecedents in OCB measured by the composite scale will be higher as compared to the variation explained in case of OCB measured by any other combination of dimensions (Hypothesis 14).

The third research question seeks to answer whether different forms of OCB have different antecedents or are the antecedents similar for all dimensions of OCB examined. The following hypothesis will be tested to answer this question:

15. The antecedents of each dimension of OCB, namely, Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery and Loyalty will be the same (Hypothesis 15).

SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed the concept of discretion in the police and noted that most policing studies have emphasized the control of misuse and abuse of discretion. Positive psychology is an emerging discipline which focuses on what is good about human psychology in an effort to make life meaningful for a majority of people. The study of

discretion in the police similarly should focus on the large majority of officers who use discretion in a positive way. Thus, the concept of OCB was introduced, which is voluntary pro-social behavior by an employee and which benefits her coworkers or the organization as a whole, and which may not always be considered for rewards.

The issue of dimensionality of OCB was explored and various forms of OCB were explained. An analysis of the extant literature on the antecedents of OCB was made. The antecedents at the individual level considered were organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job stress, role conflict, and role ambiguity. Antecedents discussed at the task level were task routinization, task feedback, and intrinsically satisfying behavior. Procedural justice and distributive justice were considered at the organizational level as antecedents of OCB. Finally, the hypotheses proposed to be tested in the study were presented. The next chapter addresses the study sample, the process used to collect the data, and the operationalization of variables. In addition, the statistical techniques to be used are briefly discussed.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the study site, sample characteristics and the methodology used to examine OCB and its antecedents. First, the chapter will provide a brief overview of the Indian police and Haryana state, which is one of the 28 states of India. Second, it will describe the methodology used to design and administer the instrument, in the form of a questionnaire to officers of Haryana police. The descriptive statistics of the study sample are provided. Third, this chapter presents measures of OCB used in previous research and the measures of OCB that will be used in the present study including the questions which comprise the instrument. Finally, each independent variable (or antecedent) is described along with the scale used to measure the variable.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY SITE AND INDIAN POLICE

The landmass of India is one-third the size of the U.S. and its population is about four times as large (i.e., 1.2 billion). India has a vibrant and rapidly growing market-based economy, estimated to be the third largest in the world (Ranasinghe, 2014). Among the functioning democracies of the world, it is the largest (Unnithan, 2009). Prior to its independence from colonial rule, the British ruled India. The British used the criminal justice system, including the police, as an instrument to perpetuate and strengthen their colonial rule (Kumar and Verma, 2008). Though India is a country with diverse cultures, languages, and religions, the British rule resulted in implementation of similar laws across the length and breadth of the country, including a somewhat uniform structure of the criminal justice system.

India continued with this uniform criminal justice system including the police structure across all 28 states and 7 Union territories after obtaining independence from the British in 1947. The Police Act V of 1861 still lays out the organization of the police system

in the country. Most states have now developed their own Police Acts which are similar to the central Police Act of 1861. Therefore, the way the police function, including departmental regulations is also very similar across the country (Nickels and Verma, 2008). The police in India are moderately decentralized and are organized at the state level. Each of the 28 states has a police force headed by an officer of the rank of Director General of Police (DGP). The seven union territories also have their own police forces, which are run by the Union (or Federal) government. The central government recruits and appoints the Indian Police Service (IPS) officers who are in leadership positions in police in all states and union territories. The bulk of the personnel in the police forces are recruited by the states themselves. Apart from providing IPS officers and some modernization grants, the central government has only a very limited role in day to day policing. The respective state governments are responsible for most police administration.

However, the central government has the capability to investigate serious cases or those involving multiple states or countries through an array of central agencies (Dhillon, 2011). For instance, the central government has constituted Central Armed Police Forces (CAPFs) (Routray, 2013). The Border Security Force is an example of CAPF, which is tasked with guarding India's international borders, the Central Reserve Police Force looks after internal security, while the Central Bureau of Investigations (CBI) deals with large scale or complex crimes, including financial crimes (Routray, 2013).

The present study was conducted in the northern Indian state of Haryana. Haryana is the region where along the banks of the epic river Saraswati, the ancient Vedic civilization originated and prospered. It is said to be the land where the Aryans settled and the Vedas were written (Qureshi, 2009). The Great War Mahabharata was fought around 900 BC near the holy land of Kurukshetra in Haryana. According to Hindu mythology, the Mahabharata is the ultimate war between good and evil, and the victory of the *Pandava* brothers represents

the triumph of truth. After India gained independence from the British in 1947, Haryana continued to be part of the larger state of Punjab. The people of Haryana demanded their own separate state to fulfil their aspirations and needs of development. In response to this the Government of India commissioned a study to examine the feasibility of this demand. The modern Indian state of Haryana was accordingly created on the recommendations of the Shah commission on Nov 1, 1966 (Qureshi, 2009).

The state has an area of 17, 070 square miles and a population of 25.4 million (Census of India, 2011). Haryana is adjacent to the national capital of New Delhi, and is considered a relatively well-developed state with a literacy rate of 77% and life expectancy of 66 years (Census of India, 2011). However, it suffers from an adverse sex ratio (877 women for every 1000 men) and a widespread existence of caste based social stratification system (Rudolph and Rudolph, 2012).

The Haryana Police are a force of about 56, 747 officers headed by a Director General of Police, and are divided into 21 districts. The present study has been conducted in Sonapat and Rohtak districts, which have a police force of about 3000 officers who serve a population of about 2.51 million (Census of India, 2011). A Superintendent of Police (SP), who is assisted by four Deputy Superintendents of Police (DSP), heads the district police. The two districts are divided into 21 police stations each headed by a Station House Officer (SHO) of the rank of Inspector of Police (urban areas), or a Sub Inspector (rural areas). The sample for the study was drawn both from executive police officers (involved in investigations and patrolling), as well as from administrative police officers (who mostly deal with clerical work).

DATA COLLECTION/METHODOLOGY

The data for the present study were collected through a self-administered survey instrument that was distributed to 1000 of the 3000 police officers in Sonapat and Rohtak

districts of Haryana state, India. There are about 1500 officers posted in each of the two districts. Every third officer from the list obtained from the nominal roll of the officers was selected to participate in the survey. In this way 500 officers were selected from each district.

Survey forms were distributed to all selected officers and they were advised that the process is voluntary, anonymous, and that their responses were confidential. More specifically, printed surveys with an information sheet containing instructions on how to complete them were distributed to the respondents. Each questionnaire and an information sheet were enclosed in an unmarked envelope by the on-site person in charge of survey distribution. This was done to ensure that no survey could be linked with a particular individual. The officers received the envelopes during their daily morning roll call. They returned the surveys in the same unmarked envelope provided with the survey.

Survey materials (cover letter and questionnaire) were translated into Hindi, the national language of India, which is the spoken language in the study areas of India and also the spoken language of the Indian police officers in our study. The translation was done by an Indian doctoral student at the University of Cincinnati. An independent bilingual (English and Hindi) scholar translated the survey back into English.

Each survey questionnaire contains 225 items. Pre-testing of the instrument suggested that it would likely take officers around 45 minutes to complete the survey. For this reason, and to not interfere with work duties, officers were permitted to return their surveys at a later time. Once, the surveys were returned, the hard copy records were shipped from the study location back to the University of Cincinnati. A total of 829 surveys were returned (a response rate of 82.9%).

PARTICIPANTS

The univariate statistics for the sample characteristics are summarized in Table 3.1. The individual level demographic variables are age, gender, caste, and education. Age was measured in continuous years, and the median age was 34, ranging from 21 to 57 years of age. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable, with men coded as 1 and females as 0. An analysis of the 829 usable surveys indicated that 88% of the respondents were male. In terms of caste distribution, approximately, 20.5% indicated that they belonged to the Scheduled Castes (SC), 25.2% belonged to Backward Castes (BCs), while the rest, or 56.3% were from the general category. In terms of highest educational level, fewer than 1% had less than a middle school diploma (grade 8), 2% had a middle school diploma 22% had a Matric diploma (grade 10), 34% had a Senior diploma (grade 12), 35% had an undergraduate college degree, 7% had a graduate or professional degree. The median tenure of the police officers was 13.8 years, ranging from 1 to 39 years, while median tenure in their current positions was 1.20 years, ranging from 0 to 30 years. Finally, 50% of the participants were from the Rohtak district, while the other half were from the Sonapat district.

The respondents represented all areas of the District Police except upper management, and included officers in both executive and administrative functions.

Table 3.1: Univariate statistics

Variable	Description	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Age	Age in years	21	57	36.53	9.46
Gender	88% male (coded 1) 12% female (coded 0)	0	1	0.88	0.33
Caste	1-SC, 2-BC, 3-GEN	1	3	2.2	0.77
Education	1- graduate...7- <= grade 8	1	7	4.1	1
Tenure	Tenure in years for current position	0	30	2.44	3.05
Length of service	in years	0.1	39	13.8	9.2

In an effort to compare the characteristics of the sample and population, data were collected from the police office in Rohtak and police office in Sonapat. Unfortunately, the only demographic data that were available were for gender and caste. More specifically, the target population consisted of 3039 officers out of which 318 or 10.5% were females while 2721 or 89.5% were males. The sample drawn from the population consisted of 823 officers (excluding 4 missing values). Out of these 823, 102 (12.4%) were females, while 721 (87.6%) were males. The comparison of sample data and population distribution, indicates that the sample data does not significantly differ from the population.

Similarly, a comparison was made between the self-reported caste affiliation of the sample group and the caste affiliation of the population. A total of 161 (19.5%) officers surveyed indicated that they belonged to the schedule castes (SC) whereas the police department figures showed that 16% had declared SC as their caste affiliation. The self-reported affiliation with the backward castes (BC) was indicated by total of 269 (32.5%) officers whereas official police records suggest that 25% of the officers belong to the BC caste category. Similarly, the sample had 46.1% officers from general category while the corresponding figure in the population was 59.1%.

This comparison, as shown in Table 3.2 shows that the sample is largely representative of the population's caste distribution though the general category has been slightly under represented, whereas the scheduled castes (SC) and backward castes (BC) categories have been over sampled. The fact that the sample may not be truly representative of the population is not likely to bias the results of this study as I will control for demographic characteristics, and will be able to estimate the likely impact of any disproportion.

Table 3.2 Demographics of sample and population

		Sample		Population	
		N	%	N	%
Totals		827		3039	
Gender		823 ^a			
	Male	721	[87.6]	2721	[89.5]
	Female	102	[12.4]	318	[10.5]
Caste		811 ^b			
	SC	161	[19.9]	485	[16.1]
	BC	269	[33.1]	759	[24.9]
	GEN	381	[47]	1795	[59]

Notes: Figures in parentheses are percentages

^aValid N for Gender is 823, excluding 4 missing values

^bValid N for Caste is 811, excluding 16 missing values

VARIABLES

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is the dependent variable measured in the study. There are several ways in which OCB has been measured in the literature. One of the most popular measurement scales, initially developed by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983), has been adapted over time by subsequent researchers. The study sample used by Smith et al., (1983) comprised 422 employees and their supervisors from 58 departments of two banks. The authors of the study conducted semi-structured interviews with managers and asked them to identify instances of helpful, but not absolutely required, job behaviors. The following 16 identified behaviors are listed below.

1. Helps others who have been absent
2. Punctuality
3. Volunteers for things that are not required
4. Takes undeserved breaks *

5. Orients new people even though it is not required
6. Attendance at work is above the norm
7. Helps others who have heavy work loads
8. Coasts towards the end of the day*
9. Gives advance notice if unable to come to work
10. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations*
11. Does not take unnecessary time off work
12. Assists supervisor with his or her work
13. Makes innovative suggestions to improve department
14. Does not take extra breaks
15. Attend functions not required but that help company image
16. Does not spend time in idle conversation

*The items with asterisks were reverse coded by Smith et al. (1983).

The above 16 items were pilot tested with a second group of employees by asking them how applicable each of the sixteen items were to their own situation. Factor analysis of the construct yielded two factors which explained 54.1% of the variance in citizenship behavior. The first factor appeared to capture behavior which helps particular people in direct interactions with others. This may include orienting new people and assisting someone with a heavy workload. This factor was labeled as 'Altruism'. The second factor appeared to be an impersonal form of behavior that does not help any one person, but is helpful to the organization as a whole. For instance, punctuality and not wasting time could be the examples of this behavior. This was labeled as 'Generalized Compliance'.

The Smith et al., (1983) scale measures Altruism and Compliance behaviors as dimensions of OCB and, as noted, has been used by others in OCB research. For instance, Podsakoff et al., (2009) used this scale to measure OCB and an adapted version of this scale

has been used by Lambert and Hogan (2013) to study OCB among 220 employees of a private prison in the United States. Lambert and Hogan (2013) used eight items out of the 16 items of the Smith et al. (1983) scale. In the present study, ten items have been taken from the Smith et al. (1983) scale to measure the two dimensions of Altruism and Compliance. Altruism will be measured using five items in the present study. Four items measuring Altruism have been drawn from Lambert and Hogan (2013). The fifth item has been included as it captures the essence of Altruism by seeking an answer as to whether the employee helps her co-workers or not. Specifically, the items will be: (1)“I often help others at work who have a heavy workload without being asked to do so”, (2)“I often try to help fellow employees so they will become more productive,” (3)“I often take time away from my job to help others with their work without asking for a reward”, (4)“I frequently volunteer to do things without being asked when at work”, and (5)“I will stop and correct coworkers when I see them doing something wrong or incorrectly.

The second dimension of OCB (Smith et al., 1983), Compliance, was measured using the following five items in the present study: (1)“When possible, I take longer lunches or breaks than allowed” (negatively coded), (2) “The vast majority of time at work, I treat all coworkers with respect”, (3) “The vast majority of time at work, I treat all citizens with respect”, (4) “If possible, I take extra unauthorized breaks” (negatively coded), and (5) “Sometimes I will coast during part of the work day when there is little work to do rather than trying to find new work” (negatively coded). The first three items in this scale have been taken from Lambert and Hogan (2013), while two more items have been added afresh. Police managers frequently emphasize the importance of treating citizens as well as co-workers with respect. The two added questions are designed to capture how often or how well police officers comply with this direction. Thus, the first two factors measured in the present study correspond to these two factors (Altruism and Compliance) used by Smith et al., (1983).

Smith et al., (1983) used only the above two dimensions to measure OCB. However, police agencies may require a different measure of OCB, or multiple measures of OCB. In order to study the suitability of various scales to measure OCB in police agencies, dimensions of OCB proposed by Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter (2001) will also be used. This consideration incorporates measures of Service Delivery and Loyalty Boosterism. Bettencourt et al., (2001) based their study on data provided by 144 employees from a network of university libraries and 236 employees of an inbound service and sales call center. It is noteworthy that the Loyalty Boosterism scale was drawn based on previous research by several scholars. For instance, in their study of 210 employees of a southeastern financial services organization, Moorman and Blakely (1995) measured “Loyalty Boosterism” by measuring employee pride when representing organization to outsiders and whether the employee encourages others to use organization products.

The items pertaining to Loyalty OCB used by Bettencourt et al., (2001) were as follows.

1. Tells outsiders this is a good place to work.
2. Says good things about organization to others.
3. Generates favorable goodwill for the company.
4. Encourages friends and family to use firm's products and services.
5. Actively promotes the firm's products and services.

The six items used by Bettencourt et al., (2001) to measure Service Delivery were as follows:

1. Follows customer service guidelines with extreme care.
2. Conscientiously follows guidelines for customer promotions.
3. Follows up in a timely manner to customer requests and problems.
4. Performs duties with unusually few mistakes.

5. Always has a positive attitude at work.

6. Regardless of circumstances, exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers.

Thus Bettencourt et al. (2001) measure Service Delivery by tapping ideas like having a positive attitude at work, being exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers. The present study uses similar ideas and uses the following two items to capture ‘Service Delivery’: (1) “I feel that I can create a relaxed atmosphere with coworkers”, and (2) “I feel that I can create a relaxed atmosphere for citizens as this measures positive attitude at work”. It can be assumed that if an officer can create a relaxed atmosphere with co-workers and citizens, he has delivered good service.

Loyalty Boosterism was conceptualized as a citizenship behavior by Van Dyne et al. (1994) as allegiance to the organization through the promotion of its interests and image to outsiders. Accordingly, Loyalty Boosterism has been measured using two items: (1) “I am proud to tell people that I work for Haryana Police”, and (2) “I tell my friends that this is a great organization to work for”. These items catch the idea of saying good things about the organization to others and also that this is a good place to work.

For each of the survey items used in the present study, respondents were asked to select the response option that best represents their agreement with the survey item. The specific response options used a 5-point Likert type scale of 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *uncertain*, 4 = *agree*, and 5 = *strongly agree*. The responses were summed together to form an index measuring the composite OCB score. An internal consistency check for the composite OCB yielded a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.75. The principal component analysis is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Rotated component Matrix

	1	2	3	4
Q15 (proud to work for HP)	0.09	0.098	-0.094	0.834
Q21 (tell friends HP is great)	0.061	-0.002	0.203	0.816
Q135 (relaxed atmosph. for coworkers)	0.181	0.019	0.855	-0.042
Q136 (relaxed atmosph. for citizens)	0.115	-0.009	0.863	0.147
Q153 (help others with load)	0.672	0.11	0.111	0.011
Q157 (longer breaks)	-0.091	-0.476	0.153	-0.04
Q160 (help coworkers be productive)	0.681	0.158	0.095	0.166
Q164 (treat coworkers with respect)	0.452	0.567	0.145	0.131
Q165 (treat citizens with respect)	0.186	0.727	0	0.068
Q166 (unauthorized breaks)	0.063	-0.717	0.006	0.186
Q167 (Coast)	0.002	-0.482	-0.092	-0.08
Q168 (help others without reward)	0.674	0.237	0.184	0.007
Q169 (volunteer)	0.419	0.564	0.06	0.073
Q193 (stop and correct coworkers)	0.752	-0.08	-0.023	0.018

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to extract components from all 16 items pertaining to OCB. Factor analysis refers to a variety of statistical techniques whose common objective is to represent a set of variables in terms of a smaller number of hypothetical variables (Kim and Mueller, 1978). Thus, the assumption is that some underlying factors, which are smaller in number than the number of observed variables, are responsible for the co-variation among the observed variables. All of the survey items measuring various OCB dimensions as explained above were analyzed using SPSS. This resulted in four factors being extracted and the rotation (varimax) converged in 5 iterations. These four factors corresponded to Altruism, Compliance, Loyalty Boosterism, and Service Delivery. These are shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: OCB dimensions – descriptive statistics

Variable	Description	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Dependent Variable					
OCB1 Altruism	5 item additive index, $\alpha = .72$	5	25	19.7	2.99
OCB2 Compliance	5 item additive index, $\alpha = .6$	7	25	18.9	3.3
OCB 3 Service Delivery	2 item additive index,	2	10	7.26	1.93
OCB 4 Loyalty	2 item additive index	2	10	7.68	1.94
OCB	Composite index, $\alpha = .75$	24	70	53.74	6.58

It may be noted that the value of Cronbach's alpha for Compliance is relatively low (.6), however, the factor loadings were higher (i.e., .48, .57, .73, .72, and .48). According to Kim and Mueller (1978), the general rule of thumb is to use factor loading scores of at least .40 or higher, and those above .50 are viewed as good. These values indicate that each of the four OCB dimensions had convergent validity and unidimensionality. Therefore, the items were summed up to obtain an additive index for each dimension. The Cronbach's alpha of Service Delivery and Loyalty was not calculated as there were only two items (Eisinga, Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2013).

Independent variables

The independent variables were considered at three levels, namely, individual level, task level, and at the organizational level. The variables were created using questions as indicated below. The responses were in the form of choices on a 5 point Likert type scale. The five categories of responses were: 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'uncertain', 'agree', and 'strongly agree', coded respectively as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. The descriptive statistics for all independent variables are presented in Table 3.5.

There are four variables at the individual level, namely, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Job Stress, and Role Conflict. Organizational Commitment is commonly measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1979). The present study used a scale adapted from this formulation to measure organizational commitment. The four items used to measure affective commitment

were: (1) I feel very little Loyalty to Haryana police, (2) I find that my values and the Haryana police values are very similar, (3) The Haryana police really inspires the best in me in the way of job performance, and (4) I really care about the fate of the Haryana police. The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .61. While this alpha value is low, the factor loading scores were higher (i.e., .71, .74, .72, and .57). The general rule of thumb is to use factor loading scores of at least .40 or higher, and those above .50 are viewed as good (Kim and Mueller, 1978). These loadings suggest that the items had convergent validity and unidimensionality. Therefore, the items were summed together to obtain an additive index for affective commitment. The two items used to measure continuance commitment were: (1) Right now, staying with the organization is more a matter of necessity than it is of desire, and (2) I want to quit police service, but I am continuing to complete the number of years just to get full retirement benefits. The Cronbach's alpha of this measure was not calculated as there were only two items (Eisinga, Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2013).

Job Satisfaction was measured using a single survey item "I feel fairly well satisfied with my job". Job stress was measured using four indicators which have been adapted from the scale developed by Crank, Regoli, Hewitt, and Culbertson (1995). The resulting scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .63, for internal consistency. The items used were: (1) "Most of the time when I'm at work I don't feel that I have much to worry about" (reverse coded for index), (2) "I am usually under a lot of pressure when I am at work", (3) "When I'm at work I often feel tense or uptight", and (4) "I am usually calm and at ease when I'm working" (reverse coded for index). Role conflict was measured by asking "I regularly receive conflicting requests at work from two or more people". Role ambiguity was determined from the responses to the query "I do not always understand what is expected of me at work."

The three task level independent variables used were task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks. Task feedback was derived by asking, "When decisions are

made by my supervisor, persons affected are asked for their ideas”. Task routinization was measured by the single item, “My job is mainly concerned with routine matters”. The final task level variable, intrinsically satisfying tasks was measured from the responses to the query, “The major satisfaction in my life comes from work”.

Two independent variables, distributive justice and procedural justice, are considered organizational level variables in this study. The first, distributive justice was measured using a 5 item scale drawn from Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986), with Cronbach’s alpha being .85. The items were as follows: (1) “How fair has the Haryana police been in rewarding you when you consider the amount of effort that you have put forth?”, (2) “How fair has the Haryana police been in you when you consider the responsibilities that you have at work?”, (3) “How fair has the Haryana police been in rewarding you when you take into account the stresses and strains of your job?”, (4) “How fair has the Haryana police been in rewarding you when you take into account the amount of education and training you have?”, and (5) “How fair has the Haryana police been in rewarding you when you consider the work that you have done well?”. Procedural justice has been measured with a single item, namely, “there is a fair opportunity to be promoted”. The independent variables are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Independent variables – Descriptive statistics

Independent Variable	Description	Min	Max	Mean	SD
<i>Individual Level</i>					
Affective commitment	4 item additive index, $\alpha = .61$	9	30	22.9	3.9
Continuance Commitment	Two item index	2	10	5.0	2.2
Job Satisfaction	single item	1	5	3.6	1.2
Job stress	4 item additive index, $\alpha = .63$	4	20	11.1	3.5
Role conflict	single item	1	5	3.5	1.1
Role ambiguity	single item	1	5	2.9	1.2
<i>Task Level</i>					
Task feedback	single item	1	5	2.6	1.2
Task routinization	single item	1	5	3.6	1.1
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	single item	1	5	3.8	1.1
<i>Organizational Level</i>					
Distributive justice	5 item additive index, $\alpha = .68$	2	25	12.9	4.5
Procedural Justice	single item	1	5	3.3	1.2

Note. Min. = minimum value; Max. = maximum value; M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

DATA ANALYSIS PLAN

As discussed in chapter 2, the first purpose of data analysis was to determine the significant antecedents of OCB. For this purpose linear regression models were used. Five models were run using the four dimensions of OCB and the composite OCB (obtained by adding the scores of the four variables) as dependent variables. Each model used the independent variables listed in table 3.5. This analysis identified the significant predictors of each dimension of OCB as well as the significant predictors of the overall OCB scale.

The second purpose of the study was to determine whether OCB in police agencies should be measured by the same scale which is generally used to measure OCB in business organizations. This was achieved by comparing the results of the regression analysis in this study with similar studies done using samples from business organizations, using existing meta-analysis, and specifically the one done by Podsakoff et al., (2000). Specifically, a model was run with the dependent variables Compliance and Altruism. In the next stage of analysis

another model was run using Service Delivery and Loyalty as dependent variables. A model was also run using the composite score of OCB (all four dimensions of OCB). A comparison of the antecedents and the strength of the antecedents of OCB, and how well the variation in OCB is explained in these models was used to draw appropriate inferences and conclusions.

The third purpose of the study was to answer Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) call whether different forms of OCB have unique antecedents or not. Each model of regression analysis which was run identified significant antecedents of each of the four dimensions of OCB examined in the present study. A comparison of these antecedents showed whether the antecedents were unique or not.

The conclusions could be theoretically significant as they would indicate whether studies of OCB in police in particular and in organizations in general need to concentrate on individual OCB and how they are operationalized or should researchers just focus on a broad OCB construct. This will have implications for enhancing organizational performance as employers can be enlightened on whether they should focus on some specific OCB and its unique antecedents or if various forms of OCB are roughly equivalent with similar antecedents.

A comparison of the relationships between various antecedents of OCB with dimensions of OCB was made with the relationships found in studies utilizing samples drawn from western nations. This indicated whether the 'good Samaritan' looks similar across cultures or exhibits cultural variability.

SUMMARY

This chapter opened with a historical overview of India and how the criminal justice system has been influenced by the British rule. It described Haryana state and the structure of its police force. The descriptive statistics of the study sample drawn from the two districts,

Sonepat and Rohtak were provided. Previous research used to measure OCB and its four dimensions namely, Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery and Loyalty boosterism was referenced and scales used to measure these dimensions were explained. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) used to extract factors from the OCB construct was mentioned. The chapter then described the scales used to measure antecedents of OCB. The items used to measure the five antecedents at individual level (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job stress, role conflict, and role ambiguity) were presented.

The scales used to measure the three task level antecedents (task routinization, task feedback, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) and the two organizational level antecedents (procedural and distributive justice) were also presented. Finally, the plan for data analysis was presented.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis carried out in accordance with the plan provided in Chapter 3. First, the correlation matrix is presented which displays the Pearson's correlation coefficients between the control variables, the predictors and all five dependent variables (Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery, Loyalty, and the composite OCB index). Second, the results of the linear regression analysis are presented. Five models are presented and the significant predictors for each of the 5 dependent variables are displayed. In this chapter there is also a discussion of the assumptions of regression, as well as various regression diagnostics, including collinearity diagnostics and residuals analysis.

CORRELATION MATRIX

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated for all the variables. The correlations of control variables with dependent variables are shown in Table 4.1. The correlations of control variables with independent variables are shown in Table 4.2. Similarly, Table 4.3 presents the correlations of the independent variables with the dependent variables. When looking at the correlations of control variables with the independent variables, Age had a significant but small negative correlation with Service Delivery, and a significant positive correlation with Loyalty. Officers who were older reported lower Service Delivery behaviors and higher Loyalty. Education was significantly correlated with only the Loyalty dimension of OCB. Officers with higher levels of education showed slightly lower organizational loyalty. The only other control variable to be significantly related to any of the dependent variables was officer sex, which was negatively correlated with Altruism. Female officers tend to show higher scores on Altruism as compared to male officers in this sample.

No other control variables (Education, Tenure, and Caste) were significantly related to any of the OCB dimensions or the composite index.

Table 4.2 shows that out of the eleven independent variables, seven were positively correlated with the dimensions of OCB and the index. Four variables were positively correlated with all four dimensions of OCB, while three more variables had positive relationships with most dimensions of OCB and negative correlation with other dimensions. Specifically, Affective Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Intrinsically Satisfying Task, and Distributive Justice were all significantly and positively correlated with all four dimensions of OCB as well as with the composite OCB index. Thus, officers with higher Affective Commitment, higher Job Satisfaction, those who felt their task was intrinsically satisfying, and those who perceived a higher level of Distributive Justice reported higher levels on all dimensions of OCB. Task Feedback was positively correlated with three dimensions of OCB (Altruism, Service delivery, and Loyalty) and the composite OCB index, while it was negatively correlated with Compliance. Task Routinization had small positive but significant correlations with Altruism, Service Delivery, Loyalty and the composite OCB index. Finally, Procedural Justice was positively and significantly correlated with 3 of the 4 dependent variables (Altruism, Compliance, and Service Delivery) and the OCB index.

Table 4.1: Correlation Matrix between the control variables and dependent variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Age	1									
2 Sex	.198**	1								
3 Education	-.427**	-.191**	1							
4 Tenure	.218**	0.014	-0.080*	1						
5 Caste	0.055	0.031	.074*	-0.01	1					
6 Altruism	-0.048	-0.090*	0.05	-0	0.019	1				
7 Compliance	0.005	0.024	-0.038	-0.01	0.023	.404**	1			
8 Service delivery	-.081*	-0.023	0.004	-0.04	-0.03	.282**	.076*	1		
9 Loyalty	.136**	-0.033	-.082*	-0.03	0.037	.195**	.078*	.150**	1	
10 OCB (Composite)	0	-0.034	-0.02	-0.04	0.017	.790**	.729**	0.489**	.468**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Dependent variables are in bold.

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.2: Correlation Matrix between the control variables and independent variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Age	1															
2 Sex	.198**	1														
3 Education	-.427**	-.191**	1													
4 Tenure	.218**	0.014	-0.080*	1												
5 Caste	0.055	0.031	.074*	-0.01	1											
6 Affective Commitment	.089*	-0.009	-0.035	0.002	-0.07	1										
7 Continuance Commitment	-0.044	0.041	-0.063	.081*	-0.01	-3.68**	1									
8 Job Satisfaction	.101**	-0.027	-.078*	-0.045	0.016	.212**	-.267**	1								
9 Job Stress	-.109**	0.017	-0.043	-0.007	-.090*	-.274**	.419**	-.299**	1							
10 Role conflict	-0.039	0.005	-0.055	0	0.066	-0.069	.145**	-0.053	.157**	1						
11 Role Ambiguity	-.090*	.084*	0.046	-0.037	-0.04	-.274**	.261**	-.266**	.284**	.090*	1					
12 Task Feedback	0.055	-0.063	0.036	0.006	-.090*	0.080*	-.084*	.097**	-.162**	-0.05	0.014	1				
13 Task Routinization	0.021	-.087*	-0.01	.092**	-0.02	.178**	-.096**	.076*	-.128**	.090*	-0.047	0.094**	1			
14 Intrinsically Satisfying Task	.079*	-.124**	-.081*	0.044	-.087*	.270**	-.186**	.288**	-.181**	.088*	-.141**	.174**	.204**	1		
15 Distributive Justice	.108**	-0.022	-0.024	0.052	-0.04	.219**	-.242**	.177**	-.262**	-0.04	-.180**	.221**	.081*	.135**	1	
16 Procedural Justice	0.037	-0.068	-0.014	-.076*	0.007	.187**	-.132**	.297**	-.293**	0.008	-.087*	.233**	0.048	.280**	.248**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.3: Correlation Matrix between the independent variables and dependent variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 Affective Commitment	1															
2 Continuance Commitment	-.368**	1														
3 Job Satisfaction	.212**	-.267**	1													
4 Job Stress	-.274**	.419**	-.299**	1												
5 Role conflict	-0.069	.145**	-0.053	.157**	1											
6 Role Ambiguity	-.274**	.261**	-.266**	.284**	.090*	1										
7 Task Feedback	.080*	-.084*	.097**	-.162**	-0.05	0.014	—									
8 Task Routinization	.178**	-.096**	.076*	-.128**	.090*	-0.047	.094**	1								
9 Intrinsically Satisfying	.270**	-.186**	.288**	-.181**	.088*	-.141**	.174**	.204**	1							
10 Distributive Justice	.219**	-.242**	.177**	-.262**	-0.04	-.180**	.221**	.081*	.135**	1						
11 Procedural Justice	.187**	-.132**	.297**	-.293**	0.008	-0.087	.233**	0.048	.280**	.248**	1					
11 Altruism	.250**	-.104**	.225**	-.144**	0.05	-.132**	.073*	.232**	.234**	.204**	.168**	1				
12 Compliance	.282**	-.205**	.153**	-.073*	0.002	-.325**	-.158**	0.05	.131**	0.009	-0.016	.404**	1			
12 Service delivery	.255**	-.083*	.075*	-.165**	0.066	-0.043	.112**	.174**	.156**	0.026	.218**	.282**	.076*	1		
13 Loyalty	.435**	-.381**	.376**	-.358**	-0.02	-.180**	.177**	.118**	.301**	.327**	.282**	.195**	.078*	.150**	1	
14 OCB (Composite)	.432**	-.287**	.310**	-.261**	0.049	-.283**	0.045	.204**	.289**	.207**	.199**	.790**	.729**	.489**	.468**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Three independent variables were negatively correlated with OCB as shown in table 4.3. Specifically, Job Stress was negatively and significantly correlated with all 4 dimensions of OCB and the composite OCB index. Role Ambiguity had a significant and negative correlation with all OCB dimensions except Service Delivery, where the direction of the coefficient was negative but not significant. Continuance Commitment had a negative and significant correlation with all dimensions of OCB and the composite OCB index. The last independent variable, role conflict was not significantly correlated with any dimension of OCB or the OCB index.

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Multiple linear regression was used to run models with each of the five dependent variables. However, before a regression analysis is performed, certain assumptions regarding the original data must be made. Ignoring these assumptions could lead to erroneous results (Antonakis, & Deitz, 2011). If the assumptions are not met, it could lead to Type I or Type II errors, or over or under estimation of effect size (Osbourne and Waters, 2002). Thus, meaningful interpretation of results relies on understanding assumptions and the consequences of violations. Antonakis and Deitz (2011) have stated that many journal articles do not report having tested the assumptions of the statistical tests they rely on.

In the present study a number of diagnostic techniques were used to ensure that the data were suitable for regression analysis. Specifically, the data were checked for linearity, independence of errors, homoscedasticity, multi-collinearity, and normality. An examination of residual plots and scatter plots usually indicates linear vs. curvilinear relationships (Keith, 2006). Residuals showing standardized residuals vs. the predicted values can be very helpful in detecting linearity violations (Stevens, 2009). All the predictor variables, except role conflict, had a linear relationship with all OCB dimensions in the present analysis. The

variability of box plots can often indicate the violation of the assumption of independence of errors (Keith, 2006). The examination of box plots created using SPSS did not show a violation of this assumption for any variable used in this analysis.

Heteroscedasticity was examined using a plot of standardized residuals and the regression standardized predicted values (Osbourne and Waters, 2002). If the residuals are randomly scattered around zero providing even distribution, it indicates homoscedasticity. Heteroscedasticity is indicated when the scatter is not even. The examination of these plots for the current data did not indicate any significant heteroscedasticity.

The Variation Inflation Factor (VIF) is a measure of the increase in amount of variance of each regression coefficient over that with uncorrelated independent variables (Keith, 2006). Generally, the recommended value of VIF is less than ten (Keith, 2006). The VIF values were checked and found not to be a problem as the highest value was 1.42, which is well below the recommended limit. Finally, a check for normality was also conducted. Histograms of standardized residuals with superimposed normal curves can reveal normality or otherwise. Residuals were found to have normal distribution in the present analysis.

MODEL BUILDING WITH MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Five models were run using multi-linear regression. In the present analysis, the five variables used as control variables were Age, Sex, Caste, Education, and Tenure. The independent variables were Affective Commitment, Continuous Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Job Stress, Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict, Task Feedback, Task Routinization, Intrinsically Satisfying Task, Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice. The five models, one for each dependent variable, included all of the control and independent variables.

As noted in Chapter 2, this study asks three research questions which are sought to be answered using 15 hypotheses being examined through the use of multiple regression. They are discussed in the paragraphs that follow after explaining the findings from the regression equations. The first research question seeks to find the significant antecedents of OCB. The hypotheses for this question are summarized as below:

1. Demographic variables (age, caste, educational level, gender and organizational tenure) are not expected to significantly affect OCB (Hypothesis 1).
2. Affective commitment will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 2).
3. Continuance commitment will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 3).
4. Job satisfaction will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 4).
5. Job stress will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 5).
6. Role conflict will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 6).
7. Role ambiguity will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 7).
8. Task feedback will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 8).
9. Task routinization will have a negative association with OCB (Hypothesis 9).
10. Intrinsically satisfying task will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 10).
11. Procedural justice will have a positive association with OCB (Hypothesis 11).
12. Distributive justice will be positively associated with OCB (Hypothesis 12).

The second research question seeks to know whether OCB in police agencies should be measured by the same scale as in business organizations. The hypotheses framed for this are as follows.

13. The scale constructed from using all four dimensions of OCB will better capture the OCB construct as compared to any one or any combination of various OCB dimensions (Hypothesis 13).

14. The variation explained by antecedents in OCB measured by the composite index will be higher as compared to the variation explained in cases of OCB measured by any of the other dimensions of OCB (Hypothesis 14).

The third research question seeks to answer whether different forms of OCB have different antecedents or are the antecedents similar for all dimensions of OCB examined. The following hypothesis will be tested to answer this question:

15. The antecedents of each dimension of OCB, namely, Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery and Loyalty will be the same (Hypothesis 15).

Regressions were run first with the control variables (Age, Sex, Caste, Education, and Tenure) as predictors and each of the five independent variables. None of these models were statistically significant and they explained very little, if any, variation in OCB dimensions and the composite OCB index (adjusted R^2 was from 0% to 3%). Thus, the demographic variables failed to explain a substantial amount of the variation in the dependent variables. However, Age, was statistically significant in 3 out of 5 models. Specifically, Age was significantly and negatively associated with Altruism, Service Delivery and the composite OCB index. Thus, officers with lower age showed more Altruism and Loyalty. Education had a negative and significant correlation with Loyalty. Officers with higher education had lower scores on Loyalty. Hypothesis 1 (H1) was thus supported for all five OCB dimensions and the composite OCB index, with the exception of the Age and Education variables. Since the models containing only the control variables failed to contribute substantially to explaining the dimensions of OCB or the composite measure of OCB, a decision was made to run five separate models containing the control variables and independent variables of interest. They are presented below.

Model 1: Predicting Altruism

Multiple regression was first carried out with Altruism as the dependent variable. The model was significant $F(16, 580) = 9.003$; $p \leq .01$, and explained 17.7% of the variation in Altruism (see table 4.4). Six variables were significant in this model, five of which were positively associated and one was negatively associated with the dependent variable. Specifically, Affective Commitment significantly and positively influenced Altruism ($\beta = .189$, $p \leq .01$). Officers with higher Affective Commitment were found to have higher values on Altruism. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported. Hypothesis 4 was also supported as Job Satisfaction was positively and significantly related to Altruism ($\beta = .169$, $p \leq .01$). Task routinization significantly and positively impacted Altruism ($\beta = .163$, $p \leq .01$), which means Hypothesis 9 was not supported. Intrinsically Satisfying Task had a significant and positive impact on Altruism ($\beta = .087$, $p \leq .05$), supporting Hypothesis 10. Similarly, Distributive Justice was found to significantly and positively impact Altruism ($\beta = .166$, $p \leq .000$). Higher scores on Distributive Justice were predictive of higher loyalty by officers. Thus, Hypothesis 12 was supported.

Task Feedback was the only variable which had a small but significant and negative effect on Altruism ($\beta = -.097$, $p \leq .05$). This was in contrast to what was projected as hypothesis 8. These results are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.4 (Model 1): Multivariate regression with Altruism (OCB1) as dependent variable

Variable	B	β	(SE)
Control Variables			
Age	-0.093	-0.089	(-0.013)
Sex	-0.033	-0.037	(-0.336)
Caste	0.076	0.066	(-0.15)
Education	-0.023	-0.022	-0.125
Tenure	0.01	-0.007	-0.042
Predictors			
Affective Commitment	0.242	0.189**	0.956
Continuance Commitment	0.105	0.083	-0.055
Job Satisfaction	0.156	0.169	-0.106
Job Stress	-0.032	-0.032	-0.037
Role Conflict	0.058	0.063	-0.101
Role Ambiguity	-0.027	-0.008	-0.104
Task Feedback	-0.118	-0.097*	-0.09
Task Routinization	0.163	0.163**	-0.102
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	0.078	0.087*	-0.123
Distributive Justice	0.154	0.166**	-0.028
Procedural Justice	0.022	0.027	-0.1

Note: F value = 9.003, Adjusted R- Squared = .177, N = 580

β represents the standardized regression slope, (SE) the standard error of the slope,

** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Model 2: Predicting Compliance

For the second model, multiple regression was estimated with Compliance as the dependent variable. The model was significant, $F(16, 590) = 11.068$; $p \leq .01$, and explained 21% of the variation in Compliance. Four variables were significant in this model, with one of them in the positive direction, while three of variables exerted a negative influence on the dependent variable. Affective Commitment significantly and positively influenced Compliance ($\beta = .207$, $p \leq .01$). Officers with higher Affective Commitment were found to have higher values on Compliance. The three variables which had a significant negative impact on Compliance were as follows. Continuance Commitment was found to significantly and negatively impact Compliance ($\beta = .125$, $p \leq .01$). Therefore, officers having higher

scores on Continuous Commitment were found to have lower values on Compliance. Role Ambiguity was also found to significantly and negatively influence Compliance ($\beta = -.24$, $p \leq .01$). In other words, officers who were ambiguous about their roles were likely to display lower Compliance. Task feedback had a significant and negative effect on Compliance ($\beta = -.212$, $p \leq .01$). These results are displayed in Table 4.5.

Thus three hypotheses, Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3, and Hypothesis 7 were supported for Compliance. Two additional hypotheses, Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 10, were not supported as the relationships of Job Satisfaction and Intrinsically Satisfying Task with Compliance were not significant, though their direction was as predicted.

Table 4.5 (Model 2) Multivariate regression with Compliance (OCB2) as DV

Variable	B	β	SE
Control Variables			
Age	-0.023	-0.054	-0.015
Sex	0.492	0.041	-0.373
Caste	0.049	0.021	-0.166
Education	-0.348	-0.07	-0.139
Tenure	0	0.013	-0.047
Variable of interest			
Affective Commitment	0.112	0.207**	-0.05
Continuance Commitment	-0.236	-0.125**	-0.062
Job Satisfaction	0.007	0.027	-0.118
Job Stress	0.069	0.063	-0.041
Role Conflict	0.061	0.035	-0.114
Role Ambiguity	-0.76	-0.243**	-0.116
Task Feedback	-0.573	-0.212**	-0.099
Task Routinization	0.011	-0.021	-0.114
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	0.175	0.062	-0.137
Distributive Justice	-0.035	-0.067	-0.031
Procedural Justice	-0.013	-0.015	-0.112

Note: F value = 11.068, Adjusted R- Squared = .21, N = 573,
 β represents the standardized regression slope, (SE) the standard error of the slope,
 DV means dependent variable, ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Model 3: Predicting Service Delivery

Multiple regression equations were estimated with Service Delivery as the dependent variable. The model was significant $F(16, 601) = 8.308$; $p \leq .01$, and explained 15.9% of the variation in Service Delivery. Five predictors were significant in this model, with four of the variables (Affective Commitment, Role Conflict, Task Routinization, and Procedural Justice) exerting a positive influence on the dependent variable. More specifically, Affective Commitment had a positive and significant association with Service Delivery ($\beta = .243$, $p \leq .01$). Officers with higher Affective Commitment were found to have higher values on Service Delivery. Role Conflict had a significant and positive impact on Service Delivery ($\beta = .086$, $p \leq .05$). The predictor variable, Task Routinization significantly and positively impacted Service Delivery ($\beta = .112$, $p \leq .05$). Finally, the variable Procedural Justice also had a significant and positive impact on Service Delivery ($\beta = .151$, $p \leq .05$). Officers who thought of their organization as having higher Procedural Justice showed higher scores on Service Delivery.

The only predictor with a negative sign was Job Stress which had a small but significant and negative effect on Service Delivery ($\beta = -.14$, $p \leq .01$). Thus three hypotheses, Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 5, and Hypothesis 11 were supported. Hypothesis 8 and Hypothesis 10 were not supported as Task Feedback was not statistically significant, though the coefficients were positive as anticipated. These results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 (Model 3) Multivariate regression: Service Delivery (OCB3) as DV

Variable	B	β	(SE)
Control Variables			
Age	-0.029	-0.137**	-0.009
Sex	-0.121	-0.028	-0.223
Caste	0.056	0.026	-0.098
Education	-0.098	-0.073	-0.083
Tenure	-0.01	-0.016	-0.028
Predictors			
Affective Commitment	0.118	0.243**	-0.029
Continuance Commitment	0.065	0.03	-0.037
Job Satisfaction	-0.025	0.002	-0.07
Job Stress	-0.088	-0.146**	-0.024
Role Conflict	0.131	0.086*	-0.067
Role Ambiguity	0.029	0.033	-0.069
Task Feedback	0.038	0.041	-0.059
Task Routinization	0.204	0.112**	-0.067
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	0.047	0.018	-0.08
Distributive Justice	-0.011	-0.016	-0.018
Procedural Justice	0.224	0.149**	-0.066

Note: F value = 8.308, Adjusted R- Squared = .159, N = 601

β represents the standardized regression slope, (SE) the standard error of the slope,

** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Model 4: Predicting Loyalty

The Model 4 equation examines Loyalty as the dependent variable. The model was significant $F(16, 598) = 22.5$; $p \leq .01$, and explained 35.6% of the variation in Loyalty. Seven variables were significant in this model. The variables that were significant with positive coefficients were Affective Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Task Feedback, Intrinsically Satisfying Task, and Distributive Justice, while the significant variables with negative coefficients were Continuance Commitment and Job Stress. Affective Commitment significantly and positively influenced Loyalty ($\beta = .286$, $p \leq .01$). Officers with higher Affective Commitment were found to have higher values on Loyalty. Job Satisfaction was also found to have a positive and significant association with Loyalty ($\beta = .162$, $p \leq .01$).

High values on Job Satisfaction were predictive of higher values on Loyalty among officers. Task Feedback also had a significant and positive association with Loyalty ($\beta = .09, p \leq .01$), as well as Intrinsically Satisfying Task ($\beta = .096, p \leq .01$). Similarly, Distributive justice was also found to significantly and positively impact Loyalty ($\beta = .138, p \leq .01$). Higher scores on Distributive Justice were predictive of higher Loyalty by officers.

As for the variables with negative signs, Continuance Commitment significantly and negatively impacted Loyalty ($\beta = .14, p \leq .01$). Higher Continuance Commitment scores were predictive of lower Loyalty among the employees. The other predictor was Job Stress which significantly and negatively impacted Loyalty ($\beta = -.1, p \leq .01$). Thus seven hypotheses (Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5, Hypothesis 8, Hypothesis 10, and Hypothesis 11), relating to independent variables were supported. These results are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 (Model 4): Multivariate regression with Service Delivery (OCB4) as DV

Variable	B	β	SE
Control Variables			
Age	-0.004	0.014	-0.008
Sex	-0.145	-0.01	-0.196
Caste	0.119	0.015	-0.087
Education	-0.049	-0.045	-0.073
Tenure	-0.018	-0.045	-0.025
Predictors			
Affective Commitment	0.383	0.286**	-0.026
Continuance Commitment	0.011	-0.14**	-0.032
Job Satisfaction	0.189	0.162**	-0.061
Job Stress	-0.021	-0.101**	-0.022
Role Conflict	0.109	0.019	-0.059
Role Ambiguity	0.213	0.07	-0.06
Task Feedback	0.099	0.09**	-0.052
Task Routinization	-0.06	0.009	-0.059
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	-0.057	0.096**	-0.07
Distributive Justice	0.036	0.138**	-0.016
Procedural Justice	0.002	0.045	-0.058

Note: F value = 22.5, Adjusted R- Squared = .356, N = 598

β represents the standardized regression slope, (SE) the standard error of the slope,
 ** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

Model 5: Predicting the OCB Composite Index

The final model (Model 5) uses the composite OCB index (or simply OCB) as the dependent variable. The model was significant $F(16, 572) = 12.516$; $p \leq .01$, and explained 32.9% of the variation in the OCB index (see table 4.6). Eight variables were significant in this model. The six variables which significantly and positively influenced the composite OCB index were Affective Commitment ($\beta = .318$, $p \leq .01$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .136$, $p \leq .01$), Role Conflict ($\beta = .085$, $p \leq .05$), Task Routinization ($\beta = .098$, $p \leq .01$), Intrinsically Satisfying Task ($\beta = -.096$, $p \leq .05$), and Distributive Justice ($\beta = .077$, $p \leq .01$). The two independent variables which had a significant and negative impact on the composite OCB index were Role Ambiguity ($\beta = -.102$, $p \leq .01$) and Task Feedback ($\beta = -.113$, $p \leq .01$).

Thus, five of the hypotheses (Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 7, Hypothesis 10, and Hypothesis 11) about independent variables were supported. Of the other eleven hypotheses, three (Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 5, and Hypothesis 12) were not supported as the relationship was not significant; though the direction of the relationship was as predicted. These results are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 (Model 5): Multivariate regression with composite OCB index as DV

Variable	B	β	SE
Control Variables			
Age	-0.086	-0.105**	-0.027
Sex	-0.039	-0.006	-0.688
Caste	0.579	0.056	-0.307
Education	-0.559	-0.077*	-0.257
Tenure	-0.011	-0.016	-0.087
Predictors			
Affective Commitment	0.759	0.318**	-0.094
Continuance Commitment	-0.054	-0.069	-0.114
Job Satisfaction	0.572	0.136**	-0.219
Job Stress	-0.086	-0.065	-0.076
Role Conflict	0.501	0.085*	-0.21
Role Ambiguity	-0.6	-0.102**	-0.213
Task Feedback	-0.682	-0.113**	-0.184
Task Routinization	0.574	0.098**	-0.211
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	0.36	0.096*	-0.255
Distributive Justice	0.103	0.077*	-0.05
Procedural Justice	0.233	0.05	-0.207

Note: F value = 12.516, Adjusted R- Squared = .329, N = 572

β represents the standardized regression slope, (SE) the standard error of the slope,

** $p \leq .01$; * $p \leq .05$

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Model 5 has the largest number (8) of significant variables. The Model 5 equation also explains more variation in the dependent variable (adjusted $R^2 = 32.9\%$) than three of the other models. Only the Service Delivery model had an adjusted R^2 that was higher (35.6%). Thus, Hypothesis 14 is not supported by the study, as the variation explained by antecedents

in OCB measured by the composite index is not higher as compared to the variation explained in each of the four models examining a dimension of OCB. Again, the variation explained by antecedents in OCB measured by the composite scale is, in fact, lower as compared to the variation explained in the Service Delivery model.

Finally, Hypothesis 15 stated that the influence of the antecedents of each dimension of OCB, namely, Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery and Loyalty will be the same (see table 4.6 for a summary of the findings from the five models). This hypothesis is not supported, as only one of the predictors is the same for all dimensions of OCB, while other predictors are significant for only a few dimensions of OCB and the composite index. Specifically, Affective Commitment is the only predictor which significantly impacts all four dimensions of OCB as well as the composite dimension. Thus, no matter how the OCB construct is operationalized and measured, Affective Commitment is always a significant predictor of OCB. In contrast, Job Satisfaction is a significant predictor of three dimensions of OCB (not significant with Compliance and Service Delivery). In the two models where Job Satisfaction is not a significant predictor, the direction of the relationship is as hypothesized.

Table 4.9 Comparative assessment of OCB predictors

Variable	Altruism	Compliance	Service Delivery	Loyalty	Composite OCB
Control Variables					
Age	(-)	ns	(-)	ns	(-)
Sex	ns	ns	ns	ns	Ns
Caste	ns	ns	ns	ns	Ns
Education	ns	ns	ns	ns	(-)
Tenure	ns	ns	ns	ns	Ns
Variable of interest					
Affective Commitment	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Continuance Commitment	ns	(-)	ns	(-)	Ns
Job Satisfaction	(+)	ns	ns	(+)	(+)
Job Stress	ns	ns	(-)	(-)	Ns
Role Conflict	ns	ns	(+)	ns	(+)
Role Ambiguity	ns	(-)	ns	ns	(-)
Task Feedback	(-)	(-)	ns	(+)	(-)
Task Routinization	(+)	ns	(+)	ns	(+)
Intrinsically Satisfying Task	(+)	ns	ns	(+)	(+)
Distributive Justice	(+)	ns	ns	(+)	(+)
Procedural Justice	ns	ns	(+)	ns	Ns
N	580	573	602	599	580
adjusted R-squared	0.18	0.21	0.16	0.36	0.33

Note: ns denotes the coefficient is not significant,
 (-) denotes it is significant and negative; (+) denotes a significant and positive coefficient

Similarly, Job Stress is significantly and negatively associated with the composite OCB index and Loyalty. Role Ambiguity is negatively and significantly associated with Compliance and the composite OCB index. Distributive Justice is significantly and negatively associated with Altruism, Loyalty, and the composite OCB index. Finally, Procedural Justice was found to be significant only for Service delivery. These observations partly lend credence to the fact that the effect of most OCB predictors is not consistent across the four dimensions of OCB and the composite index. The only predictor with similar effect on all dimensions of OCB is Affective Commitment.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the multiple linear regression carried out using five control variables (Age, Sex, Caste, Education, and Tenure), and eleven independent variables (Affective Commitment, Continuous Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Job Stress, Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict, Task Feedback, Task Routinization, Intrinsically Satisfying Task, Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice). Initially, five models were run using control variables as independent variables with each of the five dependent variables (Altruism, Compliance, Service delivery, Loyalty, and the composite OCB). This analysis revealed that none of the models was significant. Thus, the control variables as a whole were not significant in predicting any dimensions of OCB. However, Age was significant in predicting Altruism, Service Delivery and the composite OCB index. Education was associated significantly and negatively with the composite OCB index. No other demographic variable was associated significantly with any of the OCB dimensions (see Table 4.6).

Next, five models were run using eleven independent variables, one model for each dependent variable. The results are summarized in Table 4.6. The first model was run with Altruism as the independent variable, six variables as shown were found significant and they explained about 17.7% of the variation in Altruism. The second model was run using Compliance as the dependent variable. The four variables which were significant explained about 21% of the variation in Compliance. The third model again found four variables as shown in table 4.7 to be significant, which together explained about 16.3% of the variation in Service Delivery. The fourth model was able to explain 35.7% of the variation in Loyalty, and found eight independent variables as significantly associated with Loyalty. Finally, the

composite OCB index was used as the dependent variable in Model 5, where the seven significant variables explained 32.4% of the variation in the dependent variable.

The summary of the finding for each hypothesis is presented below in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Hypothesis results summary

Hypotheses		Proposed	Finding				
			Altruism	Compl.	SD	Loyalty	OCB*
H1	Demographic variables						
	Age		NS	S	NS	S	NS
	Sex		S	S	S	S	S
	Caste		S	S	S	S	S
	Education		S	S	S	NS	S
	Tenure		S	S	S	S	S
H2	Affective Commitment	Positive	S	S	S	S	S
H3	Continuance commitment	Negative	NS	S	NS	S	NS
H4	Job Satisfaction	Positive	S	NS	S	NS	S
H5	Job Stress	Negative	NS	NS	S	S	NS
H6	Role Conflict	Negative	S	NS	NS	NS	NS
H7	Role Ambiguity	Negative	S	NS	S	NS	S
H8	Task Feedback	Positive	NS	NS	NS	S	NS
H9	Task Routinization	Negative	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
H10	Intrinsically Sat. Task	Positive	S	NS	NS	S	S
H11	Procedural Justice	Positive	NS	NS	S	NS	NS
H12	Distributive Justice	Positive	S	NS	NS	S	S
H13	Composite index will better capture the OCB construct		NS				
H14	R ² of composite index will be highest		NS				
H15	Antecedents of all four OCB dimensions will be same		NS				

Notes: 1. NS means hypothesis not supported; S means hypothesis is supported

2. 'Negative' : the variable was hypothesized to have a negative influence on the dependent variable, while 'Positive' indicates that the variable was hypothesized to have a positive influence on the dependent variable.

3. SD means Service Delivery, Compl. means Compliance, and OCB* means the composite OCB index.

The next chapter (Chapter 5 – Discussion) places these findings in a broader context, and compares them with results obtained in studies in the US and other countries. The similarities between results are analyzed and to that extent the chapter focuses on generality of the antecedents of OCB. The differences in results are discussed to gain insight into the unique aspects of policing in India. The chapter also addresses the significance of these results and the study limitations. Suggestions for future research on OCB are also presented.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a discussion of the major findings of the study and places them in the context of other studies of OCBs, especially in criminal justice agencies and studies conducted in other nations. For this purpose, first, the results of hypotheses testing are discussed. Second, an effort is made to assess the theoretical reasons for the findings, unexpected, or otherwise. Finally, the study limitations are noted and directions for future research are suggested.

Before discussing the study findings and comparing them to existing research, it should be noted that the measures used in the present study are not exactly the same as used in studies of business organizations. However, the measures have been drawn from well-established studies and have been used often. For instance, the scale used to measure Altruism and Compliance has been taken from Smith et al., (1983) and slightly modified as explained in Chapter 3. Thus, the measures used in this study closely approximate the measures used in existing research, though they are not always exactly the same.

Broadly, this study examined the antecedents of four dimensions of OCB (Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery, and Loyalty) in an Indian police agency. It also sought to compare the results of this study to the existing literature in an effort to determine if there is variation in the antecedents across cultures and across occupations. The findings support the conclusion that most antecedents of OCBs are the same as have been found in western studies, as six of the eleven hypotheses relating to antecedents were supported, while three were partially supported. However, the antecedents did not have a consistent effect across all

dimensions of OCBs considered. This indicates that each dimension of OCB should be analyzed separately, instead of creating a single index containing the different dimensions of OCB.

These findings are important as they suggest that certain job characteristics, especially those which predict OCBs, are important to police agencies across vastly different cultures and across national boundaries. On the other hand, two hypotheses which were not supported in the present study could potentially provide an opportunity to study the unique cultural and social aspects of the police in India, in order to assess the reasons why these were not confirmed in the present study.

DEMOGRAPHIC (CONTROL) VARIABLES

The first significant finding this study reports is that demographic variables are not statistically significant in predicting OCBs as hypothesized. This finding is consistent with several other studies which have investigated the influence of demographic variables. For instance, a meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al., (2000) failed to find any relationship between demographic variables (tenure, gender, etc.) and OCBs. Lambert et al. (2012) also did not find any significant association of age with OCBs among correctional officers. However, though demographic variables as a whole were not significant in predicting OCB in this study, Age was found to be significantly associated with Altruism and Service Delivery. Specifically, older officers displayed less Altruism and Service Delivery, and also had lower scores on the composite OCB index as compared to their younger counterparts. However, Age was not significant as far as Compliance and Loyalty were concerned.

Desmette and Gaillard (2008) have suggested that older people may gradually withdraw from work context and shift their priorities to activities such as leisure and family affairs. Hewitt (2009) has called this ‘uncoupling of selves from work roles’ as

disengagement. Therefore, it seems possible that older officers are still loyal and comply with organizational objectives though they may not be as active in displaying Altruism or Service Delivery behaviors. However, it is also possible that the variable Age may be reflecting the unmeasured effect of some other variable, for instance, leadership behaviors. Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian (1997) found that more experienced employees (who were senior in age) might have a lower need for supervisory leadership, diminishing the supervisory leadership and Job Satisfaction link as compared to junior employees. However, the present study examines Job Satisfaction, but does not measure any supervisory or leadership behavior. Future studies might include leadership behaviors and examine the effect of age on OCBs.

Another interesting finding was that caste was not found to significantly impact OCBs. Caste is an important form of social organization in India. Many times the caste identity of an individual becomes more important than other identities. In this sense race may be treated as roughly an equivalent construct as caste, at least as far as its impact on OCBs is concerned in India. The findings of this study are consistent with the western studies which indicate that race is not a significant predictor of OCBs (Organ and Ryan, 1995). Thus, it seems that once officers enter the police department in India, their caste does not play a dominant role in determining their level of OCBs. Education was not found to be significant in predicting any dimension of OCB, except the composite OCB index, where it had a small negative effect.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL PREDICTORS

There are six individual level predictors or independent variables used in the present analysis. These are Affective Commitment, Continuance commitment, Job Satisfaction, Job

Stress, Role conflict, and Role Ambiguity. A discussion of the results pertaining to them is now presented.

Consistent with most previous research, Affective Commitment was found to be a robust predictor of all four dimensions of OCB as well as that of the composite OCB index, as hypothesized (hypothesis 2). Higher Affective Commitment was significantly associated with higher OCBs. This finding is also consistent with the studies conducted in the United States. For instance, Organ and Ryan (1995) found Affective Commitment was significantly related to Altruism as well as Compliance. This is an important finding as it indicates that Affective Commitment is a significant predictor of OCB across organizations, be they police or other business organizations. The finding that Affective Commitment remains a significant predictor in the Indian context, also speaks to the fact that the relationship of OCBs with Affective Commitment is not influenced by cross-cultural effects. Affective Commitment is the positive emotional attachment to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The officers who are high in Affective Commitment help the organization because they want to and their attachment to the organization may cause them to indulge in positive citizenship behaviors. Clearly, police officers who are more bonded to the organization are willing to make efforts to see that the organization prospers and they are willing to go the extra mile for it.

Another significant finding to be noted about Affective Commitment is that its effect size was more than that of Job Stress for all dimensions of OCB. Thus employer actions may have a greater positive impact on employee OCBs by emphasizing (increasing) Affective Commitment as compared to placing an emphasis on decreasing Job Stress. Emphasizing Affective Commitment more than Job Stress for higher OCBs is a finding which resonates with the findings drawn from the studies of positive psychology. Larson (2000) claimed that negative behavioral consequences are not so much a response to stress or emotional disturbance, but they are more sensitive to the absence of a positive life trajectory. The

positive life experiences which an officer may have are therefore more likely to positively impact her behavior including citizenship behavior as compared to reducing stress. This is why Peterson (2000) focused on positive factors such as optimism, good mood, and physical health. The nature of the police job is such that there are constant factors which create stress, such as continual interaction with law breakers and unpredictable schedules of work. There may not be much that can be done regarding these conditions. However, the findings of this study are good news for administrators and planners as focusing on positive experiences and emotions seems to have a greater influence on positive outcomes as compared to focusing on stress. For instance, Ryan and Deci (2000) believe self-determination increases intrinsic motivation and well-being. However, additional research needs to further determine the specific factors police managers must focus on in order to achieve positive outcomes.

On the other hand, hypothesis three was partially supported as Continuance Commitment was not significantly related to Altruism or Service Delivery, but was significantly and negatively associated with Compliance and Loyalty OCBs. Organ and Ryan (1995) also found that Continuance Commitment was not significantly related to Altruism. Again, this lends credence to the belief that Continuance Commitment shows a similar relationship to Altruism across organizations and cultures. However, Organ and Ryan (1995) did not test for the relationship of Continuance Commitment with Service Delivery and Loyalty OCBs. As noted, in the present study Continuance Commitment was negatively related to both Compliance and Loyalty OCBs. Continuance Commitment is the need component of working in the organization. An individual may continue employment with an organization because the cost of leaving it may be too high. An officer high on Continuance Commitment remains in the organization only to get a paycheck or a pension, or because she does not have alternative employment opportunities. Therefore, she may not indulge in

Loyalty or Service Delivery behaviors. This could explain the negative relationship that was observed.

Police work environments can be very negative. Officers have to face conflicting demands from the members of the civil society, internal politics and stress. Functioning in such an environment for extended periods of time can create feelings of cynicism, low morale, and low levels of job satisfaction (Blum, 2000). Job satisfaction measures the affective feelings of cognition about the job (Moorman, 1993). It is an emotional response resulting from the extent to which a person derives pleasure from his or her job (Hopkins, 1983). Low levels of job satisfaction can create many negative consequences. Studies have found that for many occupations low job satisfaction is linked to high employee turnover and absenteeism (Gerhart, 1990; Mobley, 1977), low productivity, and low organizational commitment (Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). However, there are a very limited number of studies on job satisfaction in police (Zhao, Thurman, and He, 1999).

The present study of police officers reported significant relationships of Job Satisfaction with the overall OCB measure, as well as, two dimensions of OCB – Altruism and Loyalty, as hypothesized (hypothesis 4). Most studies in business organizations have reported a significant positive association between job satisfaction and Altruism (Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). As such, the findings in this study seem to be consistent with the findings reported for other organizations. When a person exhibits citizenship behaviors, it seems reasonable to expect that she is happy with her job. The direction of causality however could be from OCB to Job Satisfaction also. If an officer is altruistic and helps her fellow officers, she develops bonds with them and this increases her levels of Job Satisfaction. Thus, the importance of altruistic behaviors is underlined by these results. Loyalty OCBs show that an officer owes allegiance to the organization and promotes its interests. Officers with higher Job Satisfaction in the present study showed greater Loyalty.

It may be noted that Job Satisfaction was not significant (at $p \leq .05$) for Compliance and Loyalty OCBs. However, the coefficient of Job Satisfaction was positive in both cases. It is possible that the relationship did not reach significance due to measurement issues or a statistical construct. It is also possible that the reason lies in the nature of society. Indian society is a hierarchical society and the police organizations also follow a highly regimented and hierarchical structure. It could be that Compliance arises out of this structure irrespective of the level of Job Satisfaction of the officer. Further research on the link between Job Satisfaction and the two OCB dimensions of Compliance and Loyalty is required to more clearly establish the relationship between them.

Though any job can be expected to have a certain amount of stress, policing is one of the most stressful occupations (Hall et al., 2010). Police officers are exposed to both external factors such as risk and danger involved in police work and also internal factors like role conflict and strained relationships between senior command and police officers (Paoline, 2003). Job Stress has been known to reduce OCBs in studies with samples drawn from many organizations (Organ and Ryan, 1995). However, this was the first study to investigate the effects of Job Stress on OCBs in police departments. Consistent with existing studies, the findings of the present study report a significant and negative relationship of Job Stress with two OCB variables - Service Delivery and Loyalty. There was a negative relationship with two additional measures of OCB - Altruism and the composite OCB measure --though it did not reach significance with either variable. This shows that the police (at least in India) are no different than other business organizations as far as the relationship between Job Stress and OCB is concerned. Higher stress levels may result in depression (Keyes et al., 2011). A depressed officer is unlikely to be mentally ready to deliver quality service to citizens or show loyalty to her agency. To reduce stress levels its potential causes must be analyzed, so

that effective action can be taken to eliminate/diminish, if possible, those factors that increase officer stress.

TASK LEVEL PREDICTORS

Task variables have not been emphasized very often in previous OCB research. However, the limited research which has been conducted reveals consistent relationships of task variables with citizenship behaviors. All three task variables (Task Feedback, Task Routinization, and Intrinsically Satisfying Task) have been found to be significantly related to Altruism, Courtesy and other OCB dimensions (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Let us consider each of the three task variables one by one. The present study reported a positive and significant association of the first task variable, Task Feedback, with Loyalty OCB as suggested by Hypothesis 8. Task Feedback was, however, significantly and negatively related to Altruism and Compliance OCBs. Thus, task feedback had a mixed relationship with various dimensions of OCB. The possible reasons for this are explained further below.

The second task variable, Task Routinization had an unexpected significant and positive relationship with three of the OCB dimensions (Altruism, Service Delivery and the composite OCB index). Thus Hypothesis 9 was not supported. This suggests that routine tasks may be preferred by Indian police officers, as supervisor insight is available for such tasks. The Indian police, just like the Indian society is a highly structured and hierarchical organization and officers are expected to follow orders. It may be possible that some officers prefer to avoid situations where they have to take substantial initiative and risk the consequences of the outcomes. These officers may like being told what to do versus having to exercise discretion and make choices. It may also be possible that doing tasks routinely might leave more time to think about and exhibit OCBs. Given these unpredicted findings,

more research is needed to determine why high Task Routinization may lead to higher OCBs among Indian police officers.

The third task variable (Intrinsically Satisfying Task) was positively and significantly related to three dimensions of OCB (Altruism, Loyalty and the composite measure of OCB) as hypothesized. This suggests that the effects of an Intrinsically Satisfying Task are positive on OCBs across police as well as business organizations. This finding is consistent with research in other organizations as far as these three dimensions of OCBs are concerned.

It is useful to compare other research on the substitutes for leadership theory here. According to the substitutes for leadership theory, certain situational factors can neutralize, enhance or substitute for leader behaviors (Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, 2009). Substitutes are those variables which make leadership unnecessary for subordinates (Schriesheim, 1997). Task variables can be one such situational factor. For instance, an intrinsically satisfying task can enhance performance. Thus, according to the substitutes for leadership theory, if task variables are measured adequately and fully accounted for, leadership behaviors would not have any effect (or have reduced effect) on subordinate outcomes.

Even though in their meta-analysis, Podsakoff et al., (2000) found consistent effects of task variables on OCB, many other studies have found weak empirical support of the substitutes for leadership theory. One of the reasons for this weak support identified by Podsakoff, Scott, and Fetter (1993) was that most studies were conducted using non-professionals. Kerr (1977) had argued that substitutes for leadership would have stronger effects among professionals. This may be because the value system of professionals and their ability, experience, and/or knowledge can serve as a substitute for leadership behaviors (Kerr, 1977). However, even in a sample consisting of professional employees, Podsakoff et al.

(1993) did not find consistent effects of these variables. Though not entirely dismissive of the substitute's model, Podsakoff et al. (1993) suggest additional refinement of the model. The present study has used a sample of police officers who are professionals in their field. However, the effect of the task variables is not consistent. Thus, this study supports the view of Podsakoff et al., (1993) that the substitute for leadership theory needs additional refinements. Moreover, the moderating effects of the substitute variables on the relationship between leadership behaviors and OCBs have not been examined in the present study. Future studies could determine the moderating effect of the task variables on effect of leadership behaviors on OCB.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL PREDICTORS

The two salient dimensions of organizational justice examined in this study were Distributive Justice and Procedural Justice. Clay-Warner et al. (2005) posit three models for the importance of these two dimensions as far as employee outcomes are concerned. First, it is possible that both dimensions are equally important in predicting employee behaviors. The second model is the personal outcome model. In this model, Distributive Justice is more important for an employee as it directly affects the person's pay, promotion, and evaluation (McFarlin and Sweeney, 1997). Thus, employees typically care more about Distributive Justice as it maximizes their personal outcomes. Third, the group value model holds that Procedural Justice is more important for employee outcomes as employees get a feeling that there is a level playing field vis-a-vis other employees (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987). This also means that ethics are valued in the organization and employees get a fair deal.

As hypothesized in the present study, Distributive Justice was found to be significantly and positively associated with two dimensions of OCB (Altruism and Loyalty), and the composite OCB index. Thus hypothesis 12 was supported for these three dependent

variables. Procedural Justice was not significantly associated with Altruism or Loyalty. Haryana police officers thus seem to value distributive justice more than procedural justice as far as Altruism and Loyalty are concerned. Other studies have found Distributive Justice to be positively associated with OCBs. For instance, in a study of correctional staff, Lambert (2003) found distributive justice to be positively associated with OCB. Outcomes of distributive justice directly concern the officers and may give them the feeling that their organization is a just place. This motivates them to give back something to the organization. This giving back concept is incorporated in the social exchange theory which is based on the concept of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). If an employee is treated fairly it creates an unspoken obligation to reciprocate favorably. This is probably why an officer who is treated fairly turns to altruistic behavior and also shows loyalty to the organization.

Procedural Justice was found to be significantly and positively associated with Service Delivery, and was positively related to three other dimensions of OCB (Altruism, Compliance, and Loyalty), though these relationships were not statistically significant. The group model of procedural justice formulated by Lind and Tyler (1988) suggests that procedural justice promotes a concern for the welfare of the group rather than of an individual. OCB is a behavior which supports collective interest. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that officers who have a collectivist orientation will work towards the welfare of the group. Citizenship behavior has been shown as a likely means of reciprocating fair procedures because OCB is a discretionary behavior which promotes collective interest (Graham, 1989). Moreover, improving Procedural Justice is more within the control of police managers as compared to Distributive Justice, and therefore has policy implications. According to Lind and Tyler (1988) trust is a critical element to enhance procedural justice. If employees are provided an honest explanation about why and how decisions concerning them have been reached, an atmosphere of trust can be created.

In the context of police, four behaviors have been found to impact Procedural Justice (Sunshine and Tyler, 2003). The first behavior, participation, refers to when the affected person is given a chance to explain his position and express views, and these views are taken into account when making a decision. Previous research suggests that allowing people to be heard increases their faith in the fairness of the process (Greenberg, 1987a). The second behavior is neutrality, which is being unbiased in procedures. The third behavior, dignity and trust, is exhibited when officers are treated with politeness and dignity. The final component is trust in the motives. If officers believe that managers and others are truly concerned with the well-being of officers, procedures are viewed as fairer (Zamir, Mastrofski and Moyal, 2013). Police policy makers can emphasize these aspects to improve the procedural fairness and thus OCBs in their police agencies.

Thus it has been found that both Procedural and Distributive Justice are associated significantly with several dimensions of OCB, but not with other dimensions. Therefore, this study points to the overall importance of organizational justice for achieving organizational objectives. The Haryana police are similar to other organizations where organizational justice significantly predicts OCBs. However, further research is needed to determine why these results hold only for certain dimensions of OCBs and not others. Further it needs to be examined whether organizational justice variables are important to predict OCBs for the Haryana police officers or if they are universally applicable for all police officers.

MEASUREMENT OF THE OCB CONSTRUCT

The second research question sought to determine whether OCB in police agencies should be measured by the same scale as that used in business organizations. For this, it was hypothesized that the scale constructed from using all four dimensions of OCB will better capture the OCB construct as compared to any one or any combination of the various OCB

dimensions. A review of the roles of police suggests that the police perform a variety of roles that vary depending on the situation encountered. Goldstein (1977) commented that anyone attempting to define police roles will have shattered images of his previous conceptions about them and will learn the intricacies of police work. The traditional role of the police is that of a crime fighter, where police organizations themselves describe their duties as apprehending criminals and preventing crime. Most police agencies have specialized units for specific offenses (e.g., robbery, homicide etc.). These units function in a semi military fashion, where command and control are important. Officers need to follow strict orders following down the chain of command. In these situations, OCB such as Compliance may have more value. However, criminal law enforcement is something that police officers do very rarely (Bittner, 1990). Most of the time, the police perform a variety of functions such as maintaining order, handling situations, and providing services to the community. According to the National Research Council (2004) between seventy and eighty percent of police dispatches are for incidents related to order maintenance and service rather than criminal law enforcement activities. In these roles, Service Delivery can be expected to become the OCB to focus upon. Because of the various roles of police, different forms of OCBs would seem to be more relevant for different roles. Thus, OCB should probably be measured with individual dimensions (such as Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery, and Loyalty) which better align with the roles of police, instead of a single composite measure.

It was hypothesized that the variation explained by antecedents in OCB measured by the composite index will be higher as compared to the variation explained in case of OCB measured by any other single dimension. It was found that the variation explained by antecedents was approximately 17.5% for Altruism, 21% for Compliance, 16.3% for Service Delivery, 35.7% for Loyalty, and 32.4% for the composite OCB index (See Table 4.7). Thus Hypothesis 14 was not supported as variation explained by antecedents in OCB measured by

the composite index was not the highest. The highest percentage of variation explained was in Loyalty dimension of OCB.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN FORMS/DIMENSIONS OF OCB

The third research question this study sought to answer was whether different forms of OCB have different antecedents or not. It was hypothesized that the antecedents of all forms of OCB would be similar across dimensions of OCB. However, the results showed that this was not the case. The only statistically significant antecedent common to all four forms of OCB was Affective Commitment. All other dimensions of OCB showed different antecedents as significant (See Table 4.7).

This question is important as most of the research on OCB has attempted to identify its antecedents and has measured OCB either with an overall measure or by measuring various dimensions of OCB. The field of OCB is struggling with the question of which OCB operationalization is the most appropriate. Thus, the measurement issue of OCB needs to be settled as future theory building depends on it. Whether theory should concentrate on just the overall OCB construct, or should it concentrate on each individual behavior all of which have been labeled as dimensions of OCB, is the question.

One conclusion which can be reached on the basis of this study is that the four forms of OCB considered in this study are not equivalent constructs. They do not have unique antecedents. For instance, Continuance Commitment negatively impacted only Compliance and Loyalty, while it had no effect on Altruism and Service Delivery. Similarly, increased Job Satisfaction resulted in more Altruistic behaviors and Loyalty, but had no effect on Compliance and Service Delivery. Job Stress was significantly associated with Service delivery and Loyalty but not with Altruism or Compliance.

This is an important finding as it has implications for understanding organizational success. It may be possible that each dimension of OCB influences different aspects of organizational success (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This also suggests that there may be multiple mechanisms through which organizational success can be achieved. Therefore theories should be developed at the individual citizenship behavior construct level, rather than at the composite OCB construct level. Police perform a myriad variety of roles in the society, which are also determined to an extent by the demands of the community being served. This means that different success parameters are relevant to different police organizations. Theories at the individual OCB construct level would provide direction to police managers to fine tune their efforts towards modifying those antecedents which are more relevant for the desired outcomes. For instance, Service Delivery is an important behavior of police officers given the increasing role of community policing. The results of this study recommend that Affective Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Role Conflict, Task Routinization, and Procedural Justice are the antecedents which are significant (See Table 4.7) and therefore should be given attention if Service Delivery is to be increased. Similarly, if Compliance is the behavior most desired then, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, Role ambiguity, and Task Feedback are the variables which should be paid attention to by police managers.

Many OCB scholars view the dimensions of OCB as being related but distinct. In this case, scores on the OCB dimension should reflect common variance as well as specific variance, and the partitioning of variance this way is consistent with the view of OCB being regarded as an aggregate construct (LePine et al., 2002). Similar to the present study many other scholars have combined scores on various OCB dimensions into a composite score (e.g., Mangel and Cirka, 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian, 1997). LePine et al. (2002) however caution against making any hasty conclusions before theory is developed that states how the dimensions combine together as in the aggregate model. With this caveat,

the results of the present study support the view that there are clear differences between antecedents of various OCB dimensions and therefore OCB dimensions should be treated as separate constructs. Therefore, future research should study the unique relationship of each antecedent to a particular dimension of OCB.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Only two districts of Haryana state were studied for the present analysis. India has 29 states and 7 union territories which have vastly different languages, cultures, and local laws. The existence of this diversity suggests that the results of the study may not be generalized to the whole of India. The study should be replicated in other areas of India to assess whether the observed relationships hold for police officers across India. Also, the original questionnaire was prepared in English and was translated into Hindi, the local language for convenience of the officers participating in the survey. It is possible that some meaning may have been lost during the translation process, though there is no indication that this occurred. To assess this it may be necessary to test this in the future with a group of officers, especially if the survey is translated into a language besides Hindi.

There are also some measurement issues that need to be mentioned. For instance, according to Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational commitment has three components. These are affective commitment (emotional attachment), continuance commitment (perceived costs of leaving), and normative commitment (perceived obligation to stay). Though the three components are related, there is enough evidence concerning the construct validity of each of the three components. This suggests that these three components are distinguishable from each other. Further, some studies have indicated normative commitment to be a significant predictor of OCB. For instance, in a study of 317 clerical workers, Morrison (1994) found normative commitment positively related to OCB. The present study uses only two

components, Affective Commitment and Continuance Commitment. The effect of normative commitment, if any, is unmeasured in the present study. Future studies might include this component in the analysis to assess the relationship of all three dimensions of Organizational Commitment with OCBs in order to obtain a complete picture.

Similarly, only two components of organizational justice (Procedural Justice and Distributive Justice) were examined in this study. Wolfe and Piquero (2011) posit that a third component of organizational justice is transactional justice or interactional justice. How employees are treated by their senior colleagues and managers is the subject matter of the study of transactional justice. The perceptions of interactional justice may influence the level of OCBs shown by employees (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). Future studies may incorporate transactional justice as a predictor of OCB to determine its effect.

Five control variables and eleven independent variables were able to explain only about 30% of the variation in OCBs in the present study. This indicates there are other antecedents which are missing from the present study. As such, future research might explore other possible antecedents of OCB. One such variable is leadership behaviors. A number of leadership behaviors, for instance, LMX, or Leader Member Exchange have been examined in OCB research. In his meta-analysis, Deluga (1995) found that LMX positively and significantly impacts Altruism. Supportive leader behaviors were found to increase levels of Altruism and Compliance by Organ and Ryan (1995). Similarly, core transformational leadership behavior was found to significantly increase Altruism and several other dimensions of OCB by Chen and Farh (1999) in their meta-analysis. Other leadership behaviors such as contingent and non- contingent reward and punishment behavior, leader role clarification, supportive leader behavior, and leader role specification have also been considered previously in OCB literature (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer 1996a).

Three task characteristics have been examined in the present study. However, there are other aspects of tasks which may be relevant to OCBs. For instance, Hackman and Oldham (1980) claim that task identity, task significance, and task autonomy may have an effect on employee attitudes and perceptions such as job satisfaction or commitment, which are known to influence OCBs. For instance, police supervisory positions may have a task profile which involves creativity or innovation and could be more intrinsically satisfying than an everyday patrol job. Therefore task identity may be important for some positions and not for others. This may have policy implications for police administrators. In the positive personality literature, Larson (2000) focused on exceptional performance which includes creativity and talent. Thus if the job profiles of police officers are modified to include more creativity, it may result in not only creating happiness but also could lead to enhanced OCBs. Thus future OCB studies among police officers may incorporate these aspects of task characteristics as antecedents.

Another limitation of this study is that errors due to common method variance have not been controlled. Common method variance arises when the variance in the dependent variable is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent. These errors can be random or the more serious type, systematic (Spector, 1987). Systematic error variance can have a significant impact on results, leading to misleading conclusions (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). The term method may mean content of specific items, scale type, response format, and the general context (Fiske, 1982, pp. 81–84). Method effects may also refer to response biases such as halo effects, social desirability, acquiescence, leniency effects, or yea- and nay-saying. (p. 426). In the present study OCBs as well as the antecedents were measured using a single instrument from the same respondents. By contrast several studies have used managers' perceptions of OCBs as the dependent variable. In their meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that the correlation between

positive affectivity and Altruism dropped from .15 to .08 when common method variance was taken into account. Future studies might attempt to measure OCBs of officers as perceived by managers or colleagues to control for common method variance.

While this study established association of several antecedents of OCB with four dimensions of OCB, a causal relationship cannot be drawn, as it was a cross-sectional study rather than a longitudinal one. Future studies may utilize a longitudinal design to determine causality.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented a discussion on the major findings of the study. We examined the antecedents of OCB and placed them in the context of other OCB studies. Specifically, we compared findings from US based studies in business organizations and also some studies from the criminal justice system, especially the police and corrections. Parallels were drawn between OCB literature and that of positive psychology. The importance of positive factors at the workplace (e.g. Affective Commitment) and not merely absence of negative factors (e.g. Job Stress) was highlighted. The limitations of the study were pointed out and directions for future research were presented.

Study conclusions are presented in the next chapter (Chapter 6-Conclusion). The conclusions pertain to the nature of the OCB construct and its measurement, and the importance of OCBs in police agencies. Recommendations for future studies of OCBs in India and relevant policy implications are also presented.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents the conclusions of the study. For this purpose, it first notes the need for study of the positive use of discretion by police officers and the study objects. Second, a summary of the major findings of the study are presented. Third, the implications for the police in India are discussed. Finally, the chapter discusses the theoretical implications of the study findings.

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation began by noting that police officers usually have the ability to exercise large amount of discretion in their work. This discretion can be abused and result in unethical acts or inefficient behavior. Alternatively, discretion can be used for pro-social behavior which enhances achievement of organizational objectives. There has been an extensive study of the misuse and abuse of discretion by police officers. However, the study of voluntary and pro-social behaviors in police organizations has been lacking so far, barring a few attempts. This study was an attempt to focus on such voluntary behaviors, also called organizational citizenship behaviors, which go beyond the call of duty and which make the functioning of the police organization more effective.

This attempt to shift the emphasis to voluntary pro-social behaviors of police officers was partly motivated by developments in the field of positive psychology by Martin Seligman and others, notably, Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi. These psychologists took forward the work of Albert Bandura (1996) who viewed the individual not as a passive entity responding to stimuli, but as an active participant in her life. Positive psychology focuses on

hope, creativity, positive experience, and other positive aspects and features of life instead of looking at pathologies and weaknesses in human beings.

It might be more fruitful to look at how the positive behavior of police officers takes shape rather than trying to find the sources of abuse of discretion. Once it is known what kinds of officers, or what kind of task attributes, or other factors are responsible for generating citizenship behaviors, one can look forward to emphasize those variables. This would pave the way to enhance the achievement of organizational objectives in the police. In the early years of OCB research, it was assumed that OCB would enhance organizational effectiveness. However, subsequent studies have empirically tested the relationship between citizenship behaviors and organizational performance. No empirical studies linking OCB and performance have been done with regard to police agencies. However, research has been done in this regard in other organizations. These studies suggest that OCBs may enhance coworker productivity, enhance managerial productivity, may free resources up for more productive purposes and may increase coordination between team members and across work groups (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1997). An organization high in OCB may attract and retain the best employees and may enable effective adaptation to environmental challenges (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

OBJECTS OF THE STUDY

The first object of this study was to determine the significant antecedents of OCB found in police agencies and whether they differ from the antecedents of OCB found in other business organizations. The study also looked at whether the measurement of the OCB construct in the context of police should be different than the measurement in case of business organizations. Finally, the study examined whether each form of OCB examined has different antecedents or whether the antecedents are the same for all OCBs.

Though a large number of specific behaviors have been examined in OCB literature, this study examined four dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors, namely, Altruism, Compliance, Service Delivery, and Loyalty, and sought to find their antecedents. This is the first systematic study of antecedents of OCB in a police agency. The study is also unique in that it considers the largest number of categories of antecedents in a single study, namely, demographic characteristics, variables at the individual level, task level, and at the organizational level. Therefore it was possible to control for the effect of a significant number of variables identified in existing research to arrive at reliable effect sizes of the predictors under examination.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Given the fact that OCBs are positively related to individual level and organizational level success parameters, it is essential to determine the factors which predict OCBs. Perhaps the most important finding which has emerged from this study is that officer-level control variables, such as age, gender, tenure, caste, and education do not exert much of an impact on OCBs. These are also the factors over which police managers have the least direct control.

The finding related to caste is particularly important. Caste is considered an important form of social organization in India. Many people believe in the caste system, a hierarchical system of social stratification in India. This study did not find any significant effect of caste of police officers on the OCB displayed by them. The insignificance of the caste factor as far as OCB is concerned is an important finding. In a society where many decisions are taken on the consideration of caste as one of the factors, it is heartening to note that it is not caste but the task characteristics and organizational characteristics which should be the focus of police managers if they want to increase OCBs.

The study found that the factors relating to organizational justice, job satisfaction, task variables, and organizational commitment are strongly related to OCBs. The good news is that these factors are often within the control of managers, especially as compared to demographic variables. Thus managers should pay more attention to these factors if they want to influence the willingness of their employees to exhibit OCBs.

Though many antecedents did not share similar relationships with all dimensions of OCB, the findings indicate that certain antecedents need to be focused on by managers if they want to enhance OCBs. Specifically, the study found that enhancing Affective Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Intrinsically Satisfying Task, Distributive Justice, and Procedural Justice can increase OCBs in police organizations. Efforts made to reduce Role Ambiguity, Job Stress, and Continuance Commitment can also be expected to result in increased OCBs.

Another finding relevant for policy consideration is that positive factors like Job Satisfaction are more influential to predict OCB variations than negative factors like Job Stress. This is because the effect size of Job Satisfaction was more than that of Job Stress in the present study. Similar conclusions have been reached by other studies. For instance, Lambert, Hogan, and Griffin, (2008) found that organizational commitment (a positive factor) was almost two times as potent in predicting the variation in OCB as was job stress (a negative factor). This finding is in tune with the emphasis of positive psychology which is on what is good about human nature versus focusing solely on what is bad about human nature. On the basis of this study it appears that there is more to be gained out of increasing Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment than there is to gain by reducing levels of Job Stress or Role Ambiguity. Similarly, organizational objectives can be better achieved by focusing on increasing the perceptions of Distributive Justice than trying to reduce levels of Continuance Commitment.

Ill effects of negative workplace factors such as job stress or role ambiguity are already well documented in previous research. What this study shows is that it is even more important to focus on increasing the positive factors than to focus on decreasing the negative factors if police managers want to improve performance of OCBs. The three themes of positive psychology can be a useful framework for police managers to focus on. Positive experience, positive personality, and the relationship of an individual with her social environment are all areas where police administrators can focus their efforts to improve deliverables. While this study has shown the linkage of positive psychology themes with desired organizational outcomes in police, this is admittedly an exploratory study of these linkages. Further research is required to determine the importance of positive experience, social context and other themes of positive psychology in police organizational behavior.

The study also found that the measurement of OCB in police agencies should not necessarily be the same as the measurement of OCB in business organizations. Police have many roles to play including that of handling disorder situations, providing services and maintaining order, among others. Clearly the roles played by the police are many and varied. Therefore, it does not seem possible that only one dimension of OCB would be related to all these roles. It is possible that different behaviors would be treated citizenship behaviors in different contexts. Further research is required to understand each of these roles and associated OCBs.

Finally, the study found that the four dimensions of OCB examined in this study have different antecedents, though Affective Commitment was a common antecedent across all dependent variables. This suggests that each dimension of OCB should be examined separately instead of only using a combined OCB index obtained by summing up the scores of various OCB dimensions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE IN INDIA

The police are an important agency under the criminal justice system of India. However, they do not enjoy a positive image (Unnithan, 2009). In the past several decades, there have been efforts to professionalize the Indian police and improve their performance. For instance, the Government of India has been providing modernization funds to states to purchase weapons, communication equipment, buildings and other items. However, being a service organization the interaction and intervention of police officers with citizens becomes crucial. Security and public order functions are often provided at the request of the customers, who are citizens in this case. The insights provided by this study can help administrators and police policy makers improve police performance and interactions with citizens.

Many states in India have only recently enacted their own Police Acts and are in a state of transition of the police from a colonial structure to a modern democratic structure. Organizational citizenship behaviors by police officers can help achieve these tremendous challenges. This is especially true of India, where roles of police are rapidly expanding and there are many areas where ground rules are not yet set in place. In such situations, it is important for police officers to take the initiative to go beyond their stated duties and take actions that can meet these challenges successfully.

It is not that police officers do not perform OCBs. However, there has not been a systematic study of these behaviors and what can be done to enhance OCBs. The results of this study, although exploratory, suggest that police administrators should be aware of the role that job variables play towards influencing OCBs and the overall performance of police agencies. Police agencies need to examine the relevance of each OCB dimension individually. The antecedents or predictors of only that dimension may then be suitably addressed.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The study found that the predictors of OCB dimensions are the same as have been found in other studies conducted in the US and other countries. However, many of the relationships of predictors with various OCB dimension are not similar. Most predictors did not have the same effect across all OCB dimensions. For instance, while Job Satisfaction was a significant predictor of Altruism and Loyalty, it had no significant effect on Compliance and Service Delivery. Similarly, while higher Role Ambiguity was predictive of lower Compliance, it had no significant effect on other dimensions of OCB. These findings suggest that each dimension of OCB may have unique antecedents.

This has implications for future theory development of OCB. Police organizations have myriad roles and therefore unique OCBs may be desired for each role. Police managers are interested in knowing whether each OCB dimension has a unique and independent effect on police performance and whether they have different antecedents. If the various OCB dimensions studied have the same antecedents then they are essentially equivalent constructs. However, if each OCB dimension has different antecedents, then it is important to understand each one of the dimensions separately. In such a case, future theory development should be undertaken at the individual OCB dimension level. Many OCB scholars have been combining scores of each dimension of OCB into a composite index. However, this study supports the conclusion of LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002) who cautioned against simply combining the dimensions of OCB to create a composite OCB index. Unless theory is developed which shows the way to combine various dimensions, it seems best to examine each OCB dimension as a unique construct.

The police have to deliver safety and security services to the community. In the present study we have examined the antecedents of police OCBs. However, we have not

linked OCBs to the performance of police agencies. In other words, we have not examined whether performance of OCBs leads to higher productivity of police employees or improves citizen attitudes towards the police. Future studies might also examine how far OCBs lead to better fulfillment of organizational objectives for the police.

CONCLUSION

Most police officers have the desire and ability to perform beyond stated expectations. If police agencies create the right atmosphere in their organizations then they might see an increase in citizenship behaviors of police officers. The right atmosphere can be created by placing more emphasis on positive workplace factors like task variables and organizational conditions. This can pave the way for police officers to be good Samaritans and enhance their own well-being, as well as make their organizations healthy and effective.

SUMMARY

This chapter summed up the study by emphasizing the main points which had emerged during the study. The objects of the study were stated along with how far they were achieved. It was found that various OCB dimensions have different antecedents and it is important to focus on specific OCBs and not on an overall OCB as a general construct. The linkage of positive psychology with organizational behavior in police was used to drive home the point that there is much to be gained by focusing on positive workplace factors, though reducing the stressors is also important. Finally, theoretical implications were discussed, chiefly highlighting that theories need to be developed at the individual OCB construct level in order to fully understand their nature.

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